ABSTRACT CONSTRUAL OF TOP LEADERS: RESPECT AS A MEDIATOR

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Summary

Abstract Construal of Top Leaders: Respect as a Mediator

In the leadership literature, one longstanding issue is that leaders are sometimes described in by *trait* terms and sometimes by behavioral *acts.* To explain this inconsistency, Construal Level Theory (CLT; Trope & Liberman, 2003) was applied in this research. One of the premises of CLT is that construal of any stimulus is driven by how distant it is from the perceivers. More specifically, distant stimuli are construed in abstract terms but close stimuli are construed in concrete terms. So, the working hypothesis was that top, relative to immediate, bosses should be construed at more abstract trait terms.

In Experiment 1, a Leader Behavior Construal Scale (LBCS), patterned after the Behavioral Identification Form (Vallacher & Wegner, 1989), was developed. Responses on LBCS consisting of trait and behavioral related items formed a single factor. More important, the socially distant top, relative to the proximal, immediate boss in Experiment 1(N = 180) was construed at a more abstract level. In Experiment 2 (N = 300), "self as boss" was also construed at a more abstract level than the boss, suggesting that distance, but not familiarity, underlies the difference between leadership construal.

Experiment 3 (N = 120) was similar to Experiment 1 but tested the hypothesis that respect for the leader mediates the construal difference. The measures of *trust in* and *respect for* the leader were taken to test the hypothesis and to refute the objections of the common method bias and the omitted variable problem. Results showed that *trust in* leaders was distinguishable from *respect for* them. More interestingly, trust *in* the leader was constant but respect increased with distance. Respect also mediated the effect of psychological distance on leadership construal. Taken collectively, these

results explain why trait or behavioral acts are used to describe the leaders. Essentially, it is the distance between leaders and followers that activates such construals.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

"Leadership is action, not position."

Donald H. McGannon

"A man is only a leader when a follower stands beside him."

Mark Brouwer

Leadership is commonly defined as the process of influencing others so as to enhance their contribution to the realization of group goals (e.g., Chemers, 2001; Hollander, 1985; Smith, 1998). This emphasis on influence may be one of the reasons behind leadership "…being the most important topic in the realm of organizational behavior" (Lord & Maher, 1991, p. 129). Interest in this topic dates back to the writings of Plato over 2,000 years ago. A four volume *Encyclopedia of Leadership* by Goethals, Sorenson, and Burns (2004) has 1,927 pages and 1.2 million words. Yet, plethora of these studies has still not been able to reach a consensus on how to understand successful or effective leader behavior (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005).

Numerous attempts beginning from the "trait" or "great person" approach to "situation" and to the combination of them are available in the literature. In this thesis, however, I approach this topic from a comparatively different perspective, focused on the role of followers in leadership. I draw upon followers not as "passive recipients" as they have been treated in *leader-centered* approaches, but as "active co-producers" in the process of leadership.[1] As Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) have suggested, "Clearly, more research is needed on followers and the leadership relationship" (p. 222). While

[1] In his co-edited book entitled *Follower-Centered Perspectives on Leadership,* Shamir (2007, p. ix) highlights followers' roles in the process of leadership as that of active co-producers along with the leaders.

presenting the editorial section on the process and the *heart* of leadership, Ciulla (2004) has also emphasized:

> …leadership is not a person or a position. It is a complex moral relation between people, based on trust, obligation, commitment, emotion, and a shared vision of the good (p. xv).

Thus, I explore how followers perceive leader's actions differently based on the different relations they share with the leaders. I take a different stand because the relation between leader and follower can vary based on the *position or status differences* of leaders with respect to the followers. Hence, I explore how does difference in position or status of a *leader* affect the perception of *his* actions by the followers? Essentially, then, I am trying to answer to what extent does the process of leadership depend on the position of a leader. I draw upon social cognition theories for this purpose.

Leaders

Person-centered approach. Much of the literature on leadership focuses on the *person*. Even in relatively recent review, Haslam (2001) classified the various approaches to leadership into three categories: (a) specific characteristics or traits of the leader, (b) features of the situation in which these qualities (or others) work, and (c) combination of these two. Thus Shamir (2007) laments that, the followers in these theories have been viewed as "…passive recipients or moderators of the leader's influence" (p. x). For a better understanding of the literature, I present a brief overview of these approaches.

Trait approaches emphasize that leaders are set apart from followers by their possession of distinctive intellectual and social characteristics (e.g., intelligence, good

judgment, and insight). This *great person* analyses dates back to Plato. In the 19th century, Francis Galton (1892) championed the view that leaders were born, not made. McClelland and colleagues (McClelland, 1975, 1985; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982) identified traits in the form of broad categories of needs: achievement, affiliation and power. McClelland, (1975) proposed the leader motive profile as a combination of traits that predicted leadership. These person-centric approaches focused on one person, where the followers tended to personify the leader and explained him or her in terms of personality dispositions. This idea has surfaced in different guises like in the theories of transformational leadership that emphasized *charisma* (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002; Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1998). The focus, in the contemporary period, has shifted from a few specific traits to the Big Five personality dimensions of *extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and intellect/openness*. In fact, Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002) reported a multiple correlation of .58 between these traits and leadership.

Variations from trait-based approaches were seen in those studies which described a leader by his or her *actions or behaviors*. Lippitt and White (1943) studied the effect of three different leadership styles that is, *autocratic, democratic,* and *laissez-faire,* on group atmosphere, morale, and effectiveness in after school activities clubs of young boys. Democratic leadership style was found to be more effective than autocratic and laissez-faire styles in producing a friendly, group centered, task-oriented atmosphere (that was associated with relatively high group productivity).

Along the same lines, the *two- dimensional* models emerged. Bales (1950) identified *task-specialist* (one who gives opinions about the central aspects of the task)

and *socioemotional specialist* (one who responds and shows concern for the feelings of other group members), suggesting that no one person could occupy both the roles simultaneously. The follow-up was the most famous research of the 1950s at the Ohio State University. The goal was to identify categories for relevant leadership behaviors and to develop questionnaires describing those behaviors (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill, 1949; Hemphill & Coons, 1957). Factor analyses of responses revealed that subordinates perceived their supervisors in two roughly defined categories. One was concerned with the *task objectives* or *initiating structures* (i.e., the leader defines and structures his or her roles and roles of subordinates towards the attainment of group's formal goal); the other was concerned with *interpersonal relations* (i.e., the leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates, and looks for their welfare). This research led to the development of the *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire* (LBDQ[2]). Unlike in Bales (1950) study, the two dimensions were independent, so it was as predicted that the same leader can score high on both the dimensions.

The Michigan Leadership studies (Katz & Kahn, 1952; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951; Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950), led to the same conclusion. Results differentiated effective from ineffective managers in terms of *task-oriented*, *relations-oriented*, and *participative* behaviors. Subsequent studies (Bass, 1990; Fleishman & Harris, 1962) showed that a moderately considerate leader is the one who is both task- and relationship-oriented, and that leaders should use both of these concerns in order to be effective. So, these studies were criticized as being, "…naïve in their attempts to offer

[2] The LBDQ provides a technique whereby group members may describe the behavior of a leader, or leaders, in any type of group or organization, provided the followers have had an opportunity to observe the leader in action as a leader of their group (Cited from http://fisher.osu.edu/offices/fiscal/lbdq/).

simple conclusions for very complex issues but they highlighted the difference between employee- and task- oriented leader" (Harris & Nelson, 2008 p. 325).

Situation-centered approach. The behavior of the leaders is said to be largely determined by features of the context in which they operate. Perrow (1970), for example, argued that the traits of leaders reflect the mechanisms by which they are selected, and their behavior is constrained by the situations that they face. Therefore, the traits and behavior of leaders are mediating variables between these structural antecedents and organizational outcomes. In recent studies, situation (Vroom & Jago, 2007) and trait (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002; Sternberg, 2007; Zaccaro, 2007) received individual attention, but these studies agreed that neither trait nor situation alone is sufficient to account for leader effectiveness (Vroom & Jago, 2007).

Contingency approach. Fiedler (1964, 1967) proposed the *contingency approach* in which both trait and situational variables are jointly considered. According to this model, different people succeed in different situations, and a leader who could be suitable in one kind of situation would not be suitable in another. Effectiveness of a leader depends upon a *relationship-* versus *task-motivation* and his control over the situation at hand. Specifically, *task-motivated* leaders would be more effective in the condition of *low* and *high* than moderate situational favorableness; *relationship-motivated* leaders, in contrast, would be more effective when the situational control lies between these extremes. The most important contribution of this theory, as Harris and Nelson (2008) also noted, is that it highlighted a number of other variables (such as, task, followers, situations, attributes of leader, etc.) in leadership effectiveness.

Given the groundwork laid down by the contingency theories and Ohio State

studies, the Path-Goal Theory (PGT; House, 1971; House & Mitchell, 1974) stated that a leader's main function is to motivate followers by clarifying the paths (i.e., follower's behaviors and actions) that help them attain their goals. Unlike the earlier discussed trait or place (a particular leader in a particular situation) approach, this theory placed emphasis on the *functioning* of the leader.

From time to time the focus has shifted from attributes of a leader (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969[3]) to situational factors (Vroom & Yetton, 1973[4]). One example of such shift is the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, wherein Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) highlighted that leaders change their ways of interacting with subordinates depending on the degree of trust and commitment between them. LMX theory predicted that effective leadership depends on the development of high-quality LMX relationships. This theory shifted the spotlight on the *relationship* between the *leader* and the *subordinates* that developed through positive transactions and through trust and respect. This theory also integrated the earlier models in a unique manner. For instance, both, *the abilities* (trait theories) and *task and relation* (two dimensional approaches) building efforts of a leader were taken into consideration.

Followers. The importance of followers was first acknowledged in the contingency and the LMX models. Follower-centric approaches were unique in that they focused on socio-perceptual processes, that is, how is a leader first perceived by the followers. Examples of this focus can be seen from the following two quotations:

Personality characteristics which may fit a person to be a leader are

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[3] Hersey and Blanchard, (1969) described follower's *maturity* and *competencies* as the key moderators of leadership effectiveness.

[4] Vroom and Yetton (1973) argued for a number of decision-making parameters related to group and the expertise of followers on which leaders decision making process is contingent.

> determined by the perceptions of followers, in the sense of the particular role expectancies and satisfactions, rather than by the traits measured via personality scale scores.
>
> Hollander and Jullian, 1969, p. 493.

> *Effective leadership lies in the eye of beholder*-so perceptions of leaders may be guided by their preconceptions of what constitutes an effective leader.
>
> van-Knippenberg, van-Knippenberg, and Giessner, 2007, p. 53.

In sum, followers can interpret the same behavior in different ways. In fact, "traits" for followers can mean the semantic labels that they use to make sense of a leader's behavior (Day & Zaccaro, 2007).

Attribution to leaders. Following Hollander and Jullian's (1969) view, Calder (1977) and Pfeffer (1977) espoused an *attribution theory* to explain leadership perceptions. The focus was on *how* followers perceive and explain leader's behavior (Lieberson & O'Connor, 1972; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). For example, *romance of leadership approach* takes a follower-centric perspective; a leader gets the credit for organizational success. It was believed that there is a potential bias or false assumption that effectiveness and functioning of groups and organizations depends upon leader (Meindl, 1995; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985). Later developments in the field used the theories from social cognitive literatures such as, impression formation, person perception, stereotyping, and categorization to explain leader perception.

Parallel studies of Lord and his colleagues (e.g., Lord & Maher, 1991, 1993; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984; Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982) emphasized that perceiving

someone as a leader involves a *categorization process* in which a target person is compared with an abstract prototype[5] stored in memory (Cantor & Mischel, 1979). For example, according to Rosch's (1975) theory, people hold an implicit *superordinate, abstract-level prototype* of a leader and more *highly differentiated basic-level* prototypes for various leadership domains (e.g., military, business, education, and politics). The broadest, superordinate, and more inclusive categorical attributes were (a) dedicated, (b) goal oriented, (c) informed, (d) charismatic, and (e) decisive (Lord et. al., 1984, Study 1). Therefore, an individual with key attributes is more likely to be perceived as a leader in any context. In this view, leadership is defined as the "process of being perceived by others as a leader" (Lord & Maher, 1991, p. 11).

Hall and Lord (1995, 1998) and Lord and Maher (1993) further highlighted the role of leadership perceptions and "implicit" views of leadership in affective and cognitive processing strategies of followers. Stereotypes, prototypes about the traits, or behaviors that are relevant for a particular type of position (e.g., executives or top level leader vs. lower level leader or political leader vs. manager) formed the basis of these implicit theories (Yukl, 2006). Skills and information from past experiences (Ritter & Lord, 2007), exposure to literature about effective leaders coupled with socio-cultural influences (Lord, Brown, Harvey & Hall, 2001) along with individual personality traits, individual beliefs, values, and shared beliefs (Gerstner & Day, 1994) lead the follower to interpret these behaviors and hence draw conclusions about the effectiveness of leaders.

These foregoing studies were important for showing that the expectations people have of leaders were important in leading them to evaluate leader actions (Yukl, 2006).

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[5] A prototype is defined as an abstract composite of the most representative attributes of category members (Rosch, 1975).

However, Yukl pointed out that "…implicit leadership theories can also be a source of biased ratings on leadership behavior questionnaires" (p. 130). A behavior could be wrongly attributed to a leader just because the followers expect him to be similar to the prototype stored in their mind about an effective leader with whom he must have had an earlier working relation. If so, implicit theory can explain the reason for incorrect attribution which distorts the actual objective perception or interpretation of a leader behavior.

In sum, Lord and associates made two significant contributions to the leadership research. First, they developed a theory of followership. Second, they challenged trait theories: No one central trait can define a leader; leadership perceptions are determined by how well one of the traits fits within the prototype of leadership traits (Day & Zaccaro, 2007).

Among the approaches discussed so far to explain leader behavior and on the background of these implicit and follower-centric theories, I argue that it is important to consider a leader's evaluation with respect to his position . As noted above, Rosch's (1975) theory led leadership researchers to postulate implicit *superordinate, abstract-level* (e.g., his traits) and a more *highly differentiated basic-level* prototypes for various leadership domains. Given the evidence for such representations, there may be prototypes for leaders at high, middle, or low level and would require different skills and abilities to be effective as they are based on the different role requirements (Mumford, Marks, Connelly, Zaccaro, & Reiter-Palmon, 2000). The importance of the differences in *level* of leader was also acknowledged nearly two decades ago by Lord and Maher (1991) who noted that "…the perceptual processes that operate with respect to leaders are very likely

to involve quite different considerations at upper versus lower hierarchical levels" (p. 97). Clearly, *status* of the leader is an important research issue in leader perception. A leader-follower relationship is based on *vertical* distance. Accordingly I review the literature on the *distance* that exists between leaders at different positions (like a top level boss and low level boss) and their subordinates.

Distance and Leadership

To the best of my knowledge, Bogardus (1927) was the first social scientist to explain the distance that exists between the leader and the follower. He used the term *vertical social distance* to explain the difference in status (in terms of positions and honors), social contacts, and achievement between the leader and the followers. Napier and Ferris (1993) explained leader-follower distance as a multidimensional construct, including psychological, structural, and functional distances. They conceptualized psychological distance as "…actual and perceived differences between the supervisor and subordinate" (pp. 328-329) and, hence, equated psychological distance to social distance.

Distance in leadership has been explained in similar ways in the works that followed. In a literature review on *distance with the leader*, Antonakis and Atwater (2002) considered it to be the underlying fundamental process of influence and effectiveness. They explained *leader distance* as*,* "…the configurable effect of leader-follower (i) physical distance, (ii) perceived social distance, and (iii) perceived interaction frequency" (p. 674).

Top versus low-level boss. Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001) emphasized the importance of distinguishing between the top and low-level leaders. An

important reason of this distinction was the kind of functions they perform and the distance (distal *versus* proximal or nearby) they have with the subordinates besides having different job responsibilities (Jacobs & Jaques, 1987). Shamir (1995) argued that it is these functions of the high- and low-level leaders that actually give rise to the unequal distance between them and their respective subordinates. Moreover, high-level leaders or top-bosses are more socially distant not only because they are physically distant, but also because they have infrequent and indirect contacts with their followers. On the other hand, immediate leaders interact, communicate and work in greater physical proximity with the subordinates than do top leaders. It is important, therefore, to consider the different level of leaders, to explain their perceived behaviors. This is especially important in a study that takes a follower centric approach to leadership. As acknowledged by Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001, p. 4),

> the distinction between 'distant' and 'close/nearby' leadership is particularly important. Without making it perfectly clear what is the exact nature of the focus… on notions of leadership, there is a serious danger of confounding our understanding of the phenomenon. The literature on social distance and leadership serves to emphasize this point.

Waldman and Yammarino's (1999) model also suggested that these distances determine the nature of relationship that a leader and the subordinate share. Since immediate followers can directly observe and judge a leader's behavior on a daily basis, they will have more specific knowledge of the leader than those who are at a distance.

The aforementioned literature highlights the importance of distance in understanding the leader-follower relationship. If the perception of a top leader is seemingly more prototypical, he or she may be perceived in a more trait-based, abstract ways as compared to a proximal leader. Put simply, the same act of a top leader that can be perceived and described in terms of traits can be described in specific behavioral units of immediate leaders. So whether a leader is perceived in behavioral forms as in Ohio and Michigan Studies (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill, 1949; Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Katz & Kahn, 1952; Katz, et al., 1951; Katz, et al., 1950) or traits terms as in initial person centered studies (e.g., Judge et al., 2002; McClelland, 1975, 1985; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; Stogdill, 1974), can possibly be accounted for by the distance between the leader and the followers. To investigate this possibility, I applied the Construal Level Theory (CLT), a cognitive perceptual approach to social cognition.

Construal Level Theory

Construal-level analysis resembles Vallacher and Wegner's (1985, 1987, 1989) action identification theory (AIT). AIT posits that there are high and low levels of mental representation of every action. Mental representation is specific to the representation of *actions* in hierarchical means–end relationships. An act of "drinking alcohol," for example, can also be described as "relieving tension," "rewarding oneself," "hurting oneself," "overcoming boredom," "getting drunk," or "swallowing" (Wegner, Vallacher, & Dizadji, 1989).

Any goal-directed action may be construed at superordinate or subordinate levels. When indicating an action with regards to how it is performed, a means to an end, one

relies on concrete means by which the act is carried out, thus rendering a subordinate action construal. The shift to a superordinate action construal occurs when one considers why it is executed, the end state, with why features offering a more general and global depiction of actions (Liberman & Trope, 1998). In addition, individual differences in level of action identification are also present. Vallacher and Wegner (1989) highlighted the role of *personal agency* according to which individuals differ in (a) the extent of experience with a specific action, (b) their capability in its execution, and (c) the extent to which they have been subjected to information. Based on these capabilities, they comprehend the actions at different identification levels.

However, CLT encompasses more than just actions and their means–end relationships. Specifically, it posits that representation of any stimulus can be at two levels (Trope & Liberman, 2003). Construal at the high-level includes relevant features but excludes the irrelevant ones. Higher level construals capture the central features of an object or event. Low-level construals, in contrast, consist of more concrete features and consequently are more detailed but less parsimonious than high-level construals (Fujita, Trope, Liberman, & Levin-Sagi, 2006). Table 1 presents a summary of these differences.

Table 1
Distinguishing High-Level and Low-Level Construals

High-level construals	*Low-level construals*
Abstract	Concrete
Simple	Complex
Structured, coherent	Unstructured, incoherent
Primary, core	Contextualized
Superordinate	Secondary, surface
Goal relevant	Goal irrelevant

Note. From "Temporal Construal," by Y. Trope and N. Liberman, 2003, *Psychological Review, 110,* pp. 403-421.

Psychological construal also depends upon the psychological distance of the perceiver from the event under consideration. Psychologically distant[6] events are represented by their essential, general, abstract, and prototypical features (high-level construal); psychologically near events, are, however, represented by their incidental, specific, and unique features (low-level construal). One reason for the use of more abstract construals may be that the more distal the entity is, lesser is the information of it due to the lack of direct experience (Liberman, Trope, & Stephan, 2007). In the following section, therefore I introduce and review the various dimensions of psychological distance (social, temporal, spatial, hypotheticality and probability), with a focus on the social and temporal-construal dimensions.

Construal as a function of social distance. Studies of self *vs.* other, familiar *vs.* unfamiliar others, similar *vs.* dissimilar others, low *vs.* high status, and in-group *vs.* out-

[6] Psychologically distant things (objects, events) are those that are not present in the direct experience of reality (Liberman, Trope & Stephan, 2007).

group members included instances of social distances (Fiedler, Semin, Finkenauer, & Berkel, 1995; Jones, 1979; Robins, Spranca, & Mendelsohn, 1996; Werkman, Wigboldus, & Semin, 1999). Perceivers made more global, dispositional attributions to others' behaviors than to their own behaviors. Social distance is thus seemingly another dimension of psychological distance.

People attribute their own acts to situations but those of others to their disposition, a tendency widely known as the *actor-observer bias* in attribution (Jones & Nisbett, 1972). To Semin and Fiedler (1989), the actor-observer effect reflects different levels of abstraction. So, participant's descriptions of their own-self and another person's behaviors in a number of situations (e.g., a successful party or a failure at school) should differ in terms of abstractness. As expected, participants did describe others behaviors more by abstract verbs than their own behaviors.

Research on *perspective-dependent recalls* further demonstrated that perceivers used more global, dispositional qualities in recalling events related to a *third-person* (a socially distant perspective) than those related to a first-person (socially near) perspective (Frank & Gilovich, 1989; Nigro & Neisser, 1983). Liviatan, Trope, and Liberman (2006) examined *similarity with a target person* as a form of social distance. They hypothesized that the less similar people are to one's own self, the more socially distant they typically seem. Participants read about a target person who had attended either similar or different classes as themselves. Later on, participants were asked to judge the activities of those target persons. As expected, the dissimilar target's actions, relative to the similar targets actions, were represented in higher level terms than similar target's actions. Participants'

preference for superordinate, relative to subordinate action identifications, was greater for a dissimilar than similar target.

Power is another form of social distance that has been linked to construal in researches of CLT. Based on the reasoning that elevated power increases the psychological distance one feels from others, Smith and Trope (2006) examined the relationship between power activation and abstraction. Participants completed a writing task that activated the experience of either low or high power (Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003). Subsequently, they completed a measure of inclusiveness of categorization (Rosch, 1975), indicating to what degree atypical exemplars (e.g., purse) were good members of a given category (e.g., clothing). Supporting the hypothesis, high-power primed participants were more inclusive in their categorization than low-power primed participants.

Power did not reduce overall attention to the utilization of the available information. Instead, it seems to enable individuals to focus on central, high-level aspects of the given information. It is also possible that the distal perspective activated by the possession of social power promotes going beyond the information given such as detecting the underlying structure and abstracting from it superordinate, central features. Construal as a function of power does indicate long-term planning and goal pursuits that are often required of individuals in a position of power (Liberman, Trope, & Stephen, 2007).

Construal as a function of time. Time is considered as an important dimension of CLT. Temporal distance changes people's responses to near-future or distant-future events by altering the way people mentally represent those events (Liberman, Sagristano,

& Trope, 2002; Liberman & Trope, 1998; Trope & Liberman, 2003). The theory proposes that in thinking about near compared with the distant future situations, people use lower level construals. In Liberman and Trope (1998, Study 1), participants were asked to imagine construing goal directed *actions* (e.g., reading a science fiction book or taking an exam) either tomorrow or next year. As predicted, construals of an activity in the distant future were at the high-level (e.g., "I broaden my horizons by reading a science fiction book") whereas most of the *near* future activities were at low-level (for e.g., "I read a science fiction book by flipping pages").

Nussbaum, Trope, and Liberman (2003) focused on a different aspect of high-level construal in *causal attribution*. Reasoning that traits are abstract, they predicted that with increased temporal distance, participants would be more likely to characterize behavior in terms of dispositional traits and thus less likely to consider the impact of situational constraints on behavior. In line with this reasoning, the *correspondence bias,* a tendency to underweight low-level, situational constraints in explaining an observed behavior (Jones & Harris, 1967), was more evident when behavior was used for predicting the distant future than the near future. Thus, perceivers placed more weight on global trait concepts and less weight on situation-specific states when predicting others' behavior in a distant rather than a near future situation. Wakslak, Nussbaum, Liberman, and Trope (2006) studied *self-concept* by using structural measures and examined differences in construal, focusing in particular on temporal shifts. Using a variety of self-structure measures, they found that distant future self-representations were always simpler and more integrated than near future self-representations.

The importance of temporal dimension has been suggested in a wide range of psychological phenomena, from individual's visual perception to attitudes to values to person perception to self-regulation to interpersonal interactions (e.g., Förster, Friedman, & Liberman, 2004; Gilovich & Medvec, 1995; Henderson, Trope, & Carnevale, 2006; Ross & Wilson, 2002; Sagristano, Trope, Eyal, & Liberman, 2006; Trope, Liberman,& Wakslak, 2007). In all these studies, distant future events were represented in an abstract, structured manner that emphasized superordinate features, while near future events were represented in a concrete, contextualized manner that includes subordinate features, supporting CLT.

Spatial distance. In CLT, the same underlying principles that apply to temporal distance also hold for spatial distance (Liberman, Trope, & Stephen, 2007). For instance, Fujita, Henderson, Eng, Trope, and Liberman (2006) found that participants used more abstract language to describe an event that purportedly took place at a spatially distant rather than near location. Henderson, Fujita, Trope, and Liberman (2006) recruited New York University (NYU) participants to view a video clip of an interaction between two NYU students. Participants were told that the video clip was filmed either on the NYU campus in New York City or on the NYU campus in Florence, Italy. Participants used more abstract language to describe the same interaction when it was alleged to have occurred at Florence in Italy than at New York City. There are suggestions that different areas of the brain might even be recruited to represent the same object at near and distant locations (e.g., Berti & Fassinetti, 2000; Halligan, Fink, Marshall, & Vallar, 2003).

Construal as a function of hypotheticality and probability. Bar-Anan, Liberman, and Trope (2006) examined implicit associations between level of construal with

temporal, spatial, social distance along with *hypotheticality* defined as "…a dimension, anchored on real, direct experience, and extending to increasingly less likely alternatives to this experience" (p. 131). The close to reality target (e.g., "Had I taken that flight…") is considered as psychologically near and a more remote from it (e.g., "Had I had wings…") as psychologically far. Participants were presented with stimuli from four categories: high-level construal (e.g., "drinks"), low-level construal (e.g., "cokes"), low (e.g., the word "ours" or the word "friend" for the social distance), or high (e.g., the word "theirs" or the word "stranger") psychological distance. The dependent variable was response latency. Participant's reaction time were faster for CLT-congruent trials (those trials where high-level stimuli were paired with distant stimuli and low-level stimuli were paired with proximal stimuli) than for CLT-incongruent trials (those trials where low-level stimuli were paired with distant stimuli and high-level stimuli were paired with proximal stimuli). Thus, participants implicitly associated psychological distance with high-level construal but psychological proximity with low-level.

Trope and Liberman (2003) and Liberman, Trope, and Stephen (2007) observed the effects of psychological distance on mental construal and conceptualized *probability* as a distance, which like the other psychological dimensions of time and space they associated with abstraction and concreteness.

Effects of level of construal on psychological distance. CLT has mostly been tested in the associations between attributes of targets to the level of construal. Research in the reverse causal direction (i.e., from construal level to psychological distance) is also consistent with the idea that forming higher level construals of an event leads to greater psychological distance from the event. For instance, Liberman, Trope, McCrea, and

Sherman (2007) examined the effect of level of construal of an event on its perceived *temporal distance*. They manipulated participants' level of construal of an activity by asking them either to explain the reasons behind the activity that is asking "*why*" (which involves high-level construal) or to describe "*how*" the activity is performed (which involves low-level construal). Participants were also asked to estimate the time before the activity would be enacted. Those who used high-level construal estimated the enactment time as more distant from the present than participants who used low-level construal to describe the same activity.

Wakslak, Trope, Liberman, and Alony (2006) found similar associations between construal and *probability* judgments. They asked participants to think about themselves performing either the main task or the filler task in a described psychology experiment. Focus on the central aspects is a part of high-level construal representation, whereas peripheral aspects are included in a low-level representation. Therefore, thinking about an event's central aspects should elicit a more high-level representation of the event. Participants were asked to indicate how likely they would be able to sign up for the experiment. In line with the proposed association between construal and probability, participants instructed to focus on the experiment's central task judged their likelihood of signing up to be lower (i.e., more distant) than those instructed to focus on the experiment's secondary task. Likewise a low-level construal of *hypothetical* events (like contracting disease with concrete symptoms-like muscle aches, headaches), made it look more real than did a high-level construal (Sherman, Cialdini, Schwartzman, & Reynolds, 1985).

The above review shows that as in the trait centered approaches, high-level construal is more trait-driven, whereas low-level construal involve more specific descriptions, as in the second phase of development in the leadership research (Henderson, Fujita, Trope, & Liberman, 2006; Fujita, et al., 2006; Liberman, Trope, & Stephen, 2007; Trope & Liberman, 2003). So, CLT has the potential to account for why the same leader is sometimes described by traits and sometimes by behaviors. On the basis of the given literature on *distance,* my working hypothesis is that it is the distance between the leader and the follower which drives how a leader is construed. An immediate leader may be construed at the low-level but a top-leader may be construed at a high-level merely because they are at different distance from the followers. Although I see merit in this hypothesis, the mechanism leading to the construal difference remains unknown. This could be because of characteristics or expectation associated with the leader and the way the top and immediate leaders are judged.

Warmth and Competence Dimension: Trust in and Respect for the Leader

Warmth and *competence* have emerged as the two fundamental dimensions in social perception (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002; Judd, James-Hawkins, Yzerbyt, & Kashima, 2005; Wojciszke, 2005). Evidence from both the old[7] and new experimental paradigms in social psychology, cross cultural psychology, and group perception has shown that people organizes their cognitions of others along these two dimensions. As Fiske et al. (2007) stated, "…studies of social cognition firmly

[7] As cited in Fiske et al. (2007, p. 78), Asch in 1946 published a study in which undergraduates formed impressions of another person based on lists of trait adjectives (e.g. determined, practical, industrious, intelligent, skillful), which also included either 'warm' or 'cold' depending on the experimental condition.

established that people everywhere differentiate each other by liking (warmth, trustworthiness) and by respecting (competence, efficiency)" (p. 77). Further, people infer intent of others from the information about their *warmth cues* and ability from the information about their *competence* cues (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008). Would difference in leader construal arising out of the distance between the leader and the followers then be represented by the *warmth* or *competence* dimension?

Morality, friendliness, helpfulness, sincerity, trustworthiness traits constitute the warmth dimensions; intelligence, skill, creativity, and efficacy, in contrast, form the competence dimension. Singh, et al. (2009a) noted that there are so many names "for the same two dimensions in the literature" (p. 1021) and that the warmth and competence dimensions can be equated with Peeters and Czapinski's (1990) *other-profitable* and *self-profitable* dimensions, respectively. The purpose for this position was to provide a functional perspective on traits. Traits forming other-profitability are good for others around the target; traits forming self-profitability are good for the target himself or herself. Stated simply, *other-profitable traits* and *self-profitable traits* are substitutes of *warmth* and *competence*, respectively.

The foregoing view is also consistent with Fiske et al.'s (2007) position in which warmth indicates *intent* of the person, but competence indicates *agency* of the person to carry out that intent. Moreover, there is supremacy of intent over competence in any interaction. In a study where participants responded on interpersonal attraction based on traits given about other-profitability or self-profitability, Singh, et al. (2009a) showed that the effect of other-profitable traits on attraction was solely mediated by trust, and that the

effect of self-profitable traits on attraction was mediated more strongly by respect than trust.

Although the foregoing study was in the area of evaluations of peers, not organizational leaders, it does serve as a guide to what may mediate the effect of the distance between the leader and the followers on leader construal. The warmth dimension of *trust* might be uniform across the leader and the followers and the construal effect may be mediated by respect alone for a leader. Does such hypothesis follow from the organizational literature?

Trust. Trust in organizations occupies a prominent place: "where there is trust, there is feeling that others will not take advantage of me" (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975, p. 497). It is found to be imperative for interdependent group relations (Cottrell, Neuberg, & Li, 2007), and in impression formations (Abelson, Kinder, Peeters, & Fiske, 1982; Chemers, 1997). In addition to consisting of a key feature of security, trust carries an important dimension of *benevolence*. A person, who is seen trustworthy, is considered as *benevolent.* Organizational literature shows that benevolence is the basis of trust in organizations (Burke, Sims, Lazzara & Salas, 2007). Wojciszke, Abele, and Baryla (2009) measured trust by items such as whether the target is "a person who does much for other; …is good for others; and [whose] actions are beneficial for other people". Clearly, their operationalization of benevolence matched not only with that of trust in organizational and social literature (Gambetta, 1988; Holmes, 1989) but also confirmed the result of Singh, et al. (2009a), where trust mediated the effect of other-profitable traits on evaluations.

The principal forms of interpersonal trust consisted of cognitive and affective elements (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Lewis & Wiegert, 1985; McAllister, 1995). Earlier researches regarded competence and knowledge as an integral part of trust (Butler, 1991; Cook & Wall, 1980). The *affective* component of trust reflects on the relationship and concerns individual's welfare. Apparently, it ensures that the person would be helpful or benevolent (Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985; Rempel, Ross, & Holmes, 2001).

Rousseau and Parks (1993) pointed out that trust is important for leadership because it determines the kind of *psychological contract*[8] between individuals. Kramer and Cook (2007) explain trust between leader and subordinates as "contingent in *no small* measure upon the availability of opportunities for supervisors to interact with and train their subordinates" (p. 6). So trust is contingent on interaction and exchanges between leader and follower, and it is important and universal for any kind of relationship.

In Singh et al. (2009a), both measures of *trust in* and *respect for* the partner were taken. What differed was the valence of traits that were either other-profitable or self-profitable. Results showed that trust, respect, and attraction were conceptually separable, distinct constructs. Trust mediated the effects of both types of traits on attraction. However, respect was stronger than trust as the mediator of the effect of self-profitable traits on attraction. Given this literature, I argue that every boss has to be trustworthy and that trust should be high regardless of vertical level of the boss. Consequently, irrespective of *distance,* both immediate and top boss will be high on the dimension of trust.

Respect. Closely linked to the dimension of competence is *respect*; we admire highly competent people for their ability and high status (Fiske, et al., 2002). As De

[8] A set of explicit or unspoken beliefs about the terms and conditions by which a relationship will operate.

Cremer (2002) defined *respect*, "a social construct …that is symbolic of one's position within the group" (p. 1336). In terms of the organizational literature, the concept of *respect* resonates more closely with the *cognition-based trust* (McAllister, 1995). It develops on the knowledge of competency of the individual, like how they have carried their role-related duties, responsibilities and what have been their prior successful performances (McAllister, 1995). Further, Burke et al. (2007), Cook and Wall (1980) and Jones, James and Bruni (1975) considered *ability* as an important feature of this category of trust. Ability has been defined as, "that group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence" (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995, p. 717). This conceptualization corresponds with a person of higher authority as it incorporates *influence* and *competencies*. In fact, the term *competence* is equated with trust in a leader in organizational sciences (Butler, 1991; Mishra, 1996).

Since Singh et al. (2009a) distinguished *trust in* from *respect for* the partner I argue that *respect* corresponds with the *cognition-based trust* (McAllister, 1995) in organizations and it should be the crucial variable in the construal of leaders varying along vertical distance. In Experiment 3, therefore, I tested whether the top boss would be high on the dimension of respect and that respect would mediate the difference in his high construal.[9] In sum, I test two key hypotheses in this research. First, top leaders are construed at higher level than immediate leaders. Second, such construal difference is mediated by respect for, not by trust in, in the leader.

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[9] In addition to the above explanation for inclusion of respect as a dimension of competence and in support for the proposed hypotheses, we can look at an interesting notion put forth by Borgadus (1927), which relate respect and social distance in a unique manner. According to Borgadus, it is imperative for any leader to have high social distance with the followers to be seen as respectful. He emphasizes that "closeness" diminishes objective perception of the leader and hence social distance brings respect to a leader.

Chapter 2

Construction of Leader Behavior Construal Scale and Testing for the Effect of Psychological Distance

Pilot Study

I conducted a pilot study first to develop a Leader Behavior Construal Scale (LBCS). The goal was to have an instrument that can assess the level at which a leader is represented. The study was patterned after that of Vallacher and Wegner's (1989) Behavior Identification Form (BIF).

Each item on BIF presents an act identity (like reading) followed by two alternative identities, one lower (for example, following the lines of a print) and one higher (for example, gaining knowledge) in level; these alternative identities were derived from pilot participants (*n*s = 20), who were asked to provide as many redescriptions as they could in 10-min period. The most frequently mentioned higher- and lower-level redescriptions were used to construct the BIF.

For the current pilot study, participants provided redescriptions of 37 leader behaviors (e.g., emphasizing goals, seeking information, coordinating groups, providing information etc.) (see Appendix A for the full list). These leader behavioral items were randomly selected from leader behavioral questionnaires and leader-effectiveness assessment tools, earlier used in various studies to demonstrate the attributes associated with a leader (Bass, 1990; Den-Hartog, House, Hanges, & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1999; Lord et al., 1984; Yukl, 2001, 2006).

Thirty Indian management students (8 women; 22 men), having work experience (Range = 4 to 72 months) (M = 24.83, SD = 18.66) in India, between the age group of 22

to 30 years (M = 24.63, SD = 2.07), and enrolled in management programs at the S.P Jain School of Management, Singapore, were recruited. These participants were instructed to re-describe a given set of items associated with leader's behavior. They were given the following instructions in a booklet,

> *Listed below are some of the behaviors displayed by a boss in an organization. People understand such behaviors based on their experiences, and we are interested in such descriptions. Here are few examples,*
>
> *1. "Clarifying doubt" could be seen as, "helping subordinate," or "facilitating in reaching collective goals," or "aiding in solving organizational problem," or "doing his job," etc.*
>
> *2. "Talking frequently" could be seen as, "micromanaging everything," or "giving orders frequently," or "explaining in detail," etc.*
>
> *You are just required to provide your own description for each of the following listed leader-related behaviors. Feel free to provide your own descriptions. There is no right or wrong response. You have 10 minutes to complete responding for all of the following items.*

A list of 37 leader behavior items was given. The participants were asked to write their responses in the space provided below each item. Along with the responses to items they also furnished demographic information (Appendix D). After they completed the booklet, they were debriefed about the study and all their related queries were answered. Following the above mentioned procedure, I collected data in groups of 3 to 5 participants at one time.

Analyses

Two new management students, judged the responses given. These judges had prior knowledge of the construal categories. When they were presented with the redescriptions of the 37 leader behavior items, they had to select the most frequently mentioned and clearly discernible abstract and concrete or more specific redescriptions for each item. As in the BIF, each item was followed by two alternative descriptions consisting of one high and one low construal redescriptions of leader's behavior.

Based on the ratings by these two judges, one high- and one low-level construal item redescription was selected for each of the leader behavioral items. For example, *repeating key tasks at hand during meetings* was selected as a low construal level redescription, and *motivating to stay focused* as the high construal level re-description for behavioral item of *emphasizing goals*. The judges could not agree on the construal categories (in terms of high- and low-construal categories) of the redescriptions for 11of the 37 items. Due to lack of consensus, 11 items were dropped.

The final version of the LBCS consisted of 26 items, followed by their one high and one low level of construal redescriptions:

1. Emphasizing goals
    a. Repeating key tasks at hand during meetings (low-level construal (LLC))
    b. Motivating to stay focused(high-level construal (HLC))

2. Seeking information
    a. Gaining knowledge (HLC)
    b. Regular discussion of task done earlier (LLC)

3. Coordinating groups
    a. Calling and asking work done at different levels(LLC)
    b. Building network(HLC)

4. Providing information
    a. Sharing and involving(HLC)

   b. Thirty minutes discussion of the direction specified by the higher authority. (LLC)

5. Specifying problems
   a. Informing about road blocks calling for feedback sessions.(LLC)
   b. Ensuring smooth flow of work(HLC)

6. Seeking suggestions
   a. Enhancing participation(HLC)
   b. Discussion with subordinates(LLC)

7. Integrating information
   a. Checking on work done at each level (LLC)
   b. Ensuring proper work flow(HLC)

8. Emphasizing deadlines
   a. Focusing on finishing task(HLC)
   b. Reminding agenda(LLC)

9. Explaining actions
   a. Informing issues discussed in meetings at higher levels(LLC)
   b. Ensuring awareness (leaving no room for misunderstanding) (HLC)

10. Clarifying doubts
   a. Ensuring correct functioning(HLC)
   b. Routine meeting(LLC)

11. Preventing conflicts
   a. Intervening and stopping arguments(LLC)
   b. Ensuring healthy work atmosphere(HLC)

12. Arguing convincingly
   a. Talking with all information(HLC)
   b. Not ready to listen(LLC)

13. Making jokes
   a. Pulling the leg of a subordinates(LLC)
   b. Being friendly(HLC)

14. Withholding rewards
   a. Maintaining performance level(HLC)
   b. Delaying raise/ recommendations/ promotions(LLC)

15. Criticizing harshly
   a. Shouting and complaining(LLC)
   b. Being a hard task master(HLC)

16. Neglects details
    a. Focusing on important issues(HLC)
    b. Avoiding routine work (paper work) (LLC)

17. Building relationship
    a. Giving personal or individual attention(LLC)
    b. Relationship oriented(HLC)

18. Motivating
    a. Maintaining high level of performance (HLC)
    b. Promising perks(LLC)

19. Planning
    a. Micro-managing (LLC)
    b. Making sure to meet company goals (HLC)

20. Building confidence
    a. Rewarding (HLC)
    b. Boosting morale (LLC)

21. Building teams
    a. Delegating same task to a group of people (LLC)
    b. Ensuring team work (HLC)

22. Monitoring
    a. Maintaining high level of performance (HLC)
    b. Keeping an eye (LLC)

23. Facilitating
    a. Delegating more people to work on the same task (LLC)
    b. Cooperating (HLC)

24. Being perfectionist
    a. Being task-oriented (HLC)
    b. Re-reading or checking again and again (LLC)

25. Being social
    a. Mixing with subordinates (LLC)
    b. Relationship oriented (HLC)

26. Rewarding
    a. Encouraging good work (HLC)
    b. Giving incentives (LLC)

Testing for the Effect of Psychological Distance on Leader Construal

Literature on distance with the leader suggested that in case of top boss the perception of a leader was expected to be seen more in terms of an abstract prototype of a leader. This prototype is stored in the memory, and is predicted to be equivalent to a high-level (or abstract) construal category as in the case of a distant or top-level boss and a low-level construal category (or concrete or specific behavior category), in case of your immediate boss (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Howell & Shamir, 1998; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Mischel & Shoda, 1995; Shamir, 1995; Trope, 1989).

Experiment 1

In Experiment 1, I tested the psychometric properties of the LBCS. Social distance from the leader was varied in terms of a *socially distal*, high-level leader (top-boss or CEO) and *socially proximal*, low-level leader (immediate boss).

Method

LBCS was used to assess the difference in construal level for a leader as per the function of social distance. The hypothesis was that, the more the distance of the leader, from the followers, higher would be his construal at a more abstract construal compared to an immediate boss. To further check the success of my manipulation, I used a measure of *closeness to the boss.* The literature (Antonakis & Atwater, 2002; Bogardus, 1927; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Roberts & Bradely, 1988; Shamir, 1995) suggests the importance of physical distance or time spent with leader, as an indicator of *distance from the* boss. For the present research, therefore I drew on Antonakis and Atwater's (2002) concept of *social distance* (relationship) and *perceived task interaction frequency*

(interactions and exchanges) and Napier and Ferris's (1993) concept of *functional distance* (leader-follower intimacy) for the construction of *closeness to the boss* measure.

Design

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions, namely socially distal and socially proximal (*n*s = 90 per cell). The distal and proximal levels were represented by "top boss" and "immediate boss" labels, respectively.

Participants

One hundred and eighty Indian management students (54 women; 126 men) enrolled in a premium management institute in India participated. They were in the age range of 22 to 34 years (M = 25.99, SD = 2.68)) with work experiences ranging from 4 to 132 months (M = 31.06, SD = 25.28)). Participation was voluntary.

Materials

LBCS. I used the 26-item LBCS to assess leader construal. As mentioned earlier, each item of the LBCS was followed by two alternative descriptions, consisting of one high and one low construal re-description of leader's behavior (e.g., for a leader behavior like *emphasizing goals,* the low level construal was *repeating key tasks at hand during meetings* and the high construal level re-description was *motivating to stay focused*).

Closeness to the boss. I included a 4-item measure assessing participants' relations to their bosses in each condition (i.e., relation to their top boss and to their immediate boss) (Appendix E). These items asked for ratings of (1) *How well did you know your boss?* (2) *How often did you meet your boss for official duties?* (3) *How often did you meet your boss for social gatherings?* (4) *How close were you to your boss?* They were asked to rate their responses on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (low

relation: *do not know at all, do not meet at all, not close at all*) to 5 (high relation: *very well, very often, very close*).

Other measures. Other measures included a list of items eliciting information about their work settings (e.g., working experience with an immediate or top level boss, thinking about the level of boss (top or immediate boss), while responding to the LBCS; see Appendix C) and other demographic details (see Appendix D).

Procedure

Each session of experiment was held on groups of 4 to 20 participants. The participants were randomly assigned to each condition. The instructions were as follows:

> *The same behavior can be understood in different ways. For example, one person might describe a behavior as "helping subordinate," while another may see it as "facilitating in reaching collective goals." We are interested in your personal interpretations. On the following pages, you will find behaviors which are usually associated with a leader. After each behavior will be two choices in which a leader behavior might be seen. Here is an example,*
>
> *1. Clarifying doubt*
>
> *---a. helping subordinate*
>
> *---b. facilitating in reaching collective goals*
>
> *Your task is to choose the description that best describes your immediate boss (or a top-level boss) in your company. Please mark only one alternative for each pair. Of course, there are no right and wrong answer. Please remember to choose the description that you think is more*

appropriate or closer to your immediate boss (or a top-level boss) of your company.

This was followed by the LBCS and other measures.

Participants were further asked to complete a short list of items asking about their relation to their boss. Participants in each condition responded to a list of items eliciting information about their work setting (see Appendix C) and demographic variables (see Appendix D). They were later fully debriefed before being asked to leave.

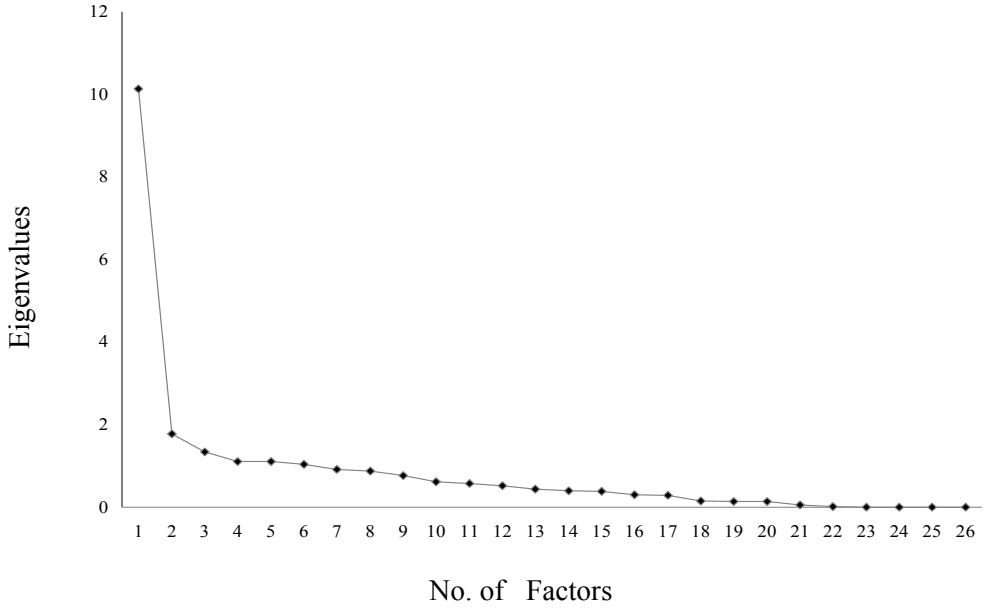
Results

Factor Analyses

To test the hypothesized construct for leader behavioral construal, I performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA)[10] of the responses to the 26 items of the LBCS. Since LBCS had categorical data I used M plus version 5 for the analyses. The screeplot from a preliminary analysis, shown in Figure 1, suggested one factor model.

[10] Bartholomew et al. (2002) and Brown (2006) describe factor analysis of categorical data.

Figure 1. Screeplot of LBCS items in Experiment 1



Factor loadings extracted with direct oblimin rotation indicated a better fit for two factor model. Twenty-three out of the original 26 items of LBCS loaded on the first factor and three other items (building relationship, specifying problems and being social) loaded on the second factor. The results are given in Table 2.

My primary aim was to test one factor model for leader construal. The items of LBCS essentially consisted of *task-oriented* leader behavioral activities. Thus, the item loadings on Factor 1 are in line with the task-oriented leader behaviors (emphasizing goals, seeking information etc). The selection done by the judges in the Pilot Study also concentrated on *task-oriented* leader behavior items for LBCS. Preliminary analyses [11]

[11] When the responses on the three items, of second factor were treated as a separate DV, the mean of the three item construal of top boss was found higher ($M = 1.70$, $SD = 1.00$) than immediate boss ($M = 0.92$, $SD = 1.03$). Although this yielded a significant mean difference, $t(178) = 4.91$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.77$, it should be noted that since it is a categorical variable, the lower mean value was even lower than the median.

Table 2
Factor Patterns for Task and Relation Construal of Leader in Experiment 1 (N = 180): Oblique Rotation

Item	*Factor 1*	*Factor 2*
	Factor 1	
1. Emphasizing goals	**0.61**	0.01
2. Seeking information	**0.48**	0.14
3. Coordinating groups	**0.44**	0.32
4. Providing information	**0.62**	-0.03
6. Seeking suggestions	**0.59**	0.17
7. Integrating information	**0.51**	0.13
8. Emphasizing deadlines	**0.37**	0.16
9. Explaining actions	**0.59**	0.16
10. Clarifying doubts	**0.69**	0.06
11. Preventing conflicts	**0.87**	0.11
12. Arguing convincingly	**0.67**	0.12
13. Making jokes	**0.74**	0.24
14. Withholding rewards	**0.66**	0.07
15. Criticizing harshly	**0.68**	0.15
16. Neglects details	**0.57**	0.23
18. Motivating	**0.85**	-0.26
19. Planning	**0.61**	0.27
20. Building confidence	**0.67**	-0.16
21. Building teams	**0.64**	0.01
22. Monitoring	**0.68**	0.10
23. Facilitating	**0.60**	-0.18
24. Being perfectionist	**0.50**	-0.05
26. Rewarding	**0.85**	-0.37
	Factor 2	
17. Building relationship	0.11	**0.87**
5. Specifying problems	0.17	**0.42**
25. Being social	0.01	**0.70**

with the two factors as separate DVs rendered further support to consider only 23 items of LBCS which loaded on Factor 1. To further check on my assumption based on the findings of EFA, I assessed the one factor model with 23 items of LBCS by running a confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using M plus version 5.

Table 3 reports CFA and thus provides an overview of fit indices for one factor solution with different number of items for LBCS within the CFA. Examination of

Table 3
Fit Indices for Single Factor Model with Different Number of Items for LBCS (N = 180)

Single Factor Model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	WRMR
With 23 items	120.67*	76	.96	.97	.057	0.91
With 26 items	179.86**	84	.90	.93	.080	1.04

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; WRMR = Weighted Root Mean Square Residual Index. *p <.0001, **p<.00001.

goodness-of-fit indices, suggests that the one-factor model was better supported by the 23-item LBCS than by the 26-item LBCS. The CFI, TLI, and RMSEA are adequate for the 23-item LBCS. Moreover, WRMR is below 1.00 value (Muthén & Muthén, 2007), for the 23 item LBCS. EFA with 23-item LBCS as shown in Table 4 provides an excellent fit for one factor model of construal.

Table 4

Factor Patterns for Construal of Leader in Experiment 1 (N = 180)[12]

Item	*Factor*
	Factor = Construal
1. Emphasizing goals	0.61
2. Seeking information	0.52
3. Coordinating groups	0.54
4. Providing information	0.61
6. Seeking suggestions	0.65
7. Integrating information	0.55
8. Emphasizing deadlines	0.42
9. Explaining actions	0.65
10. Clarifying doubts	0.71
11. Preventing conflicts	0.90
12. Arguing convincingly	0.70
13. Making jokes	0.82
14. Withholding rewards	0.68
15. Criticizing harshly	0.73
16. Neglects details	0.64
18. Motivating	0.76
19. Planning	0.70
20. Building confidence	0.62
21. Building teams	0.65
22. Monitoring	0.71
23. Facilitating	0.53
24. Being perfectionist	0.48
26. Rewarding	0.73

Coefficients of Reliability and Correlations

The 23-item LBCS had the Cronbach alpha (α) of .89.[13] The 4-item measure of *closeness to the boss* yielded α of .86. *Closeness to the boss* yielded a negative

[12] 3 items (item 5, 17, and 25) which loaded on 2nd Factor (as in Table 2) were deleted.

correlation, $r(180) = -.55$, $p < .01$, with construal further indicating that distant leaders (top-boss) had high or more abstract construal.

Preliminary Analyses

I coded the responses to the categorical variables of abstract or high construal as 1 and of concrete or low construal as 0. Thus, scores ranged from 0 (*low construal*) to 23 (*high construal*).

The assumption of homogeneity of regression was not violated. The effect of social distance on the main variable of construal was tested along with the covariates of work experience in months, work experience with the level of boss (top versus immediate boss), thinking of the boss level, closeness to the boss, and age. Only the main effect of social distance (top boss *versus* immediate boss) was significant, $F(1, 173) = 58.76$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .25$.

Hypothesis Testing

I used independent group *t* test to examine the difference between the construal of the top boss and immediate boss. The mean construal of the top boss ($M = 17.22$, $SD = 3.60$) was significantly higher than that of the immediate boss ($M = 6.80$, $SD = 3.35$), $t(178) = 20.33$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 2.9$.

Discussion

Experiment 1 had two objectives: One was to establish the psychometric properties of LBCS. Another was to test for the hypothesis that a top-boss is construed at a higher level.

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[13] Cronbach alpha was used for testing the reliability of my dichotomous LBCS, based on the support from numerous literatures (Knapp, 2007; Santos, 1999), which have highlighted its use in testing reliability for a dichotomous measure. The proper measure of reliability for the dichotomous data is the Kuder-Richardson 20 (K-R 20) estimate (Kurpius & Stafford,, 2006, p. 129). .

To get an acceptable one factor model for construal, three items had to be dropped. As indicated in Table 4, 23-item LBCS was retained as it gave an acceptable one factor model. My sample is small for reliable estimates of factor loadings. In the present case, there are 6.9 cases per variable as compared to the required 10 cases per variable (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). The reasons for which I retained the 23-item LBCS and continued with it were two-fold. First, the factor analyses indicated that one factor model was applicable (Cattell, 1966). Second, the responses showed a high level of internal consistency ($\alpha = .89$). Given the factor loadings reported in Table 4, a substantial support for one factor model can be seen. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) cited 0.32 as a good rule of thumb for the minimum loading of an item. In the present case, item loadings are high for all of the twenty three items. The items fall under the *moderate* to *high* range of loadings of 0.40 to 0.70 and 0.70 to 0.90, respectively (Velicer & Fava, 1998).

As hypothesized, the present study yielded the main effect of psychological distance on the construal of a leader. Top-boss was construed at high or more abstract level than immediate boss. This result supports the abovementioned literature on the difference in judgment of leader based on the distance: The leader is construed at a concrete level when he is closer than when he is distant. As expected, the perception of a leader is matched against an abstract prototype of a leader and this prototype is more equivalent to a high-level construal category (or abstract category) as in the case of *top-boss* (Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Lord et al., 2001; Mischel & Shoda, 1995; Trope, 1989; Yukl, 2006).

The construal of a top-boss at an abstract level also agrees with the literature that lack of knowledge about a distant leader (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Shamir, 1995) results in a more abstract than concrete description. The *closeness to boss* scale provided a check on the manipulation. Negative correlation with top-boss indicated that a high-level boss is perceived to be not so close to the followers.

Chapter 3

Effects of Other Psychological Distances on Leader Construal

Experiment 1 showed that the single factor model for leader construal was suitable; moreover, social distance is an important determinant of leader construal. Both results paved the way to test the effect of other psychological distances on leader construal.

Experiment 1 showed that top-boss, who is distal and therefore unfamiliar, is construed at an abstract level, whereas immediate boss, who is close and hence familiar, is construed at concrete level. To further check whether this effect was because of *distance from* or *familiarity with* the boss, I designed Experiment 2. In particular, I used a different operationalization of social distance in Experiment 2. Participants rated *self* as a leader: "You are the boss" versus *others* as leader: "Your boss." Indirect or distal experiences signify social distance. Because people cannot directly experience what others feel, see, and hear, the experiences of others remain comparatively distal (Bar-Anan et al., 2006). So, the *self* could be predicted to be probably the most socially proximal entity. Further, *actor-observer* studies show that others are explained in a more abstract manner than the self (Jones & Nisbett, 1972; Semin & Fiedler, 1989). As people are more *familiar* with themselves, it can be expected that they will have a more specific construal of their own selves than of others (Hypothesis 1a).

As earlier mentioned, another section of CLT researches in *hypotheticality* (Sherman, et al., 1985) and *probability* (Liberman, et al., 2002; Wakslak, 2005) dimensions of psychological distance, suggests that if distance increases from reality, construal would be more abstract than concrete. In the present case the participants do not

have experience of being a leader, so imagining being a leader is therefore equivalent to any hypothetical scenario. Therefore, they may also base their construal at a relatively more abstract than concrete level of descriptions (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Shamir, 1995). In addition, imagining performing an activity from a third-person perspective (as in the case of "you are the boss") may again produce more abstract and less detailed reports than imagining the same activity from a first-person perspective (Libby & Eibach 2002, Study 4). These findings are also supported by the inclusion/exclusion model (Schwarz & Bless, 1992; 2007), which suggests that *lack of information* on any role could also lead one to have a comparatively more abstract level of self- perception.

Studies from the *power dimension of the psychological distance* also points at the same results (Liberman Trope, & Stephen, 2007; Smith & Trope, 2006). By asking participants to imagine being a leader I prime them to focus on the central function (which is more abstract in nature) of the leader and not on their concrete behaviors, hence if distance prevails we may expect "self as a boss" to be construed at an abstract level and not on a specific level (Hypothesis 1b).

In Experiment 2, I also tested for the construal of leaders with respect to temporal distance. Temporal distance seems to have the same effect as does vertical social distance on construal of objects, events, and people (Bilgin & Brenner, 2008; Liberman et al., 2002; Liberman & Trope, 1998; Trope & Liberman, 2003), but researches have been limited in their choices of assessment direction (Agrawal, Trope, & Liberman, 2006; Nussbaum et al., 2003). These studies have compared the effects of temporally near *versus* distant objects. Mostly, both have been in terms of different future level scenarios. In Experiment 2, I included three levels of temporal distance, namely, past, present, and

future (i.e., here the psychologically near is the present and psychologically distant is the past and the future).

Given the evidence for temporal construal theory, I hypothesized that temporally distal leaders (i.e., those of the past or future scenarios) should be construed in an abstract manner but temporally proximal leaders (those of the present scenario) should be construed in a concrete manner. However, leadership literature on *leader prototypes* suggests that these prototypes do not change across time. For example, implicit leadership theories maintain that perception of leader stays stable over time (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) primarily because it is governed by the *strongly held prototypes of an ideal leader* (Lord et al., 1984; Lord & Maher, 1991). These *strongly held prototypes* determine how a follower would construe even his future leader (Philips & Lord, 1982; Ritter & Lord, 2007). Therefore, I tested competing hypotheses for the effect of temporal distance on leadership construal. While CLT predicted the difference between distant and near leaders (Hypothesis 2a); the prototype literature predicted no difference due to time (Hypothesis 2b).

Experiment 2

In this experiment, I tested two competing hypotheses. First, if familiarity operates, then self as the boss (you are the boss) would be construed at a concrete level and your boss will be construed at abstract level (Hypothesis 1a). However, if distance operates, the findings of Experiment 1 would be replicated. In particular, “self as the boss” (you are the boss) would be construed at an abstract level but “your boss” will be construed at concrete level (Hypothesis 1b).

Second, I tested the effect of temporal distance (*past, present, and future*). If time has an effect on leader construal, temporal dimension would have effect on leader construal and distance leaders (past and future) will be construed at abstract level than close leaders (Hypothesis 2a) but if leader construal is not affected by time, that would mean implicit theories govern leader construal (Hypothesis 2b).

Method

Design

The design was 2 (Social distance/familiarity: "you are the boss" vs. "your boss") x 3 (Temporal distance: past, present, and future) between-participants factorial (*n*s = 50 per cell).

Participants

Three hundred (102 women; 198 men) Indian management students (Age range = 22 to 35 years (M = 26.20, SD = 2.34), work experience (Range = 4 to 138 months (M = 32.60, SD = 23.12)) enrolled in full- and part-time courses at a premium management institute in India participated. Participation was voluntary.

Materials

LBCS and other measures were same as in Experiment 1.

Procedure. The participants were randomly assigned to one of the design conditions. Participant in the "you are the boss" conditions were given the following instructions:

The same behavior can be understood in different ways. For example, one person might describe a behavior as "helping subordinate," while another

may see it as "facilitating in reaching collective goals." We are interested in your personal interpretations. On the following pages you will find behaviors which are usually associated with a leader. After each behavior will be two choices in which a leader behavior might be seen. Here is an example,

1. Clarifying doubt

---a. helping subordinate

---b. facilitating in reaching collective goals

Imagine that you are a boss of your company. Your task is to choose the description that best describes you or would be closest to your own behavior as the boss of your company (now, five years from now, five years ago). Please mark only one alternative for each pair. Of course, there are no right and wrong answers. Please remember to choose the description that you think is more appropriate or closest to you.

Those in the "your boss" conditions were given the following instructions:

The same behavior can be understood in different ways. For example, one person might describe a behavior as "helping subordinate," while another may see it as "facilitating in reaching collective goals." We are interested in your personal interpretations. On the following pages you will find behaviors which are usually associated with a leader. After each behavior will be two choices in which a leader behavior might be seen. Here is an example,

1. Clarifying doubt

---a. helping subordinate

---b. facilitating in reaching collective goals

Your task is to choose the description that best describes your boss (now, five years from now, five years ago). Please mark only one alternative for each pair. Of course, there are no right and wrong answer. Please remember to choose the description that you think is more appropriate or closest to you.

Participants in the above two conditions were further randomly sub- divided into the different conditions of the temporal distances (for present it was *now*, for the future condition it was *five years from now,* and for the past it was *five years ago*). This was followed by LBCS for all the conditions. Participants in each condition were further asked to respond to items eliciting demographic and work information (see Appendices C and D).

All experimental session usually included participants in groups of 4 to 25, based on the convenience of the participants.

Results

Factor Analyses

As in Experiment 1, EFA was conducted on the three hundred responses. The screeplot (see Appendix F) supported one factor model. Table 5 demonstrates loadings on one factor. The factor loadings closely followed the pattern demonstrated in Experiment 1 (see Table 4). Item loadings are high for almost all of the 23 items with none falling below 0.42 loading (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Velicer & Fava, 1998).The sample size

is suitable here for conclusive evidence of factor loadings (13.04 cases per variable) (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar, et al., 1999).

To further ascertain the goodness-of-fit for one factor model, I performed CFA using M plus version 5. As in Experiment 1, the 23-item LBCS yielded a relatively better fit (CFI = .93, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .05, WRMR = 1.00) than the 26-item LBCS (CFI = .87, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .075, WRMR = 1.23). Further, the 23 item LBCS yielded a high reliability coefficient too (α = .87).

Table 5

Factor Patterns for Construal of Leader in Experiment 2 (N = 300)

Item	Factor 1
Factor 1 = Construal	
1. Emphasizing goals	0.60
2. Seeking information	0.57
3. Coordinating groups	0.62
4. Providing information	0.66
5. Seeking suggestions	0.51
6. Integrating information	0.64
7. Emphasizing deadlines	0.47
8. Explaining actions	0.42
9. Clarifying doubts	0.55
10. Preventing conflicts	0.62
11. Arguing convincingly	0.68
12. Making jokes	0.60
13. Withholding rewards	0.75
14. Criticizing harshly	0.48
15. Neglects details	0.63
16. Motivating	0.62
17. Planning	0.48
18. Building confidence	0.64
19. Building teams	0.72
20. Monitoring	0.45
21. Facilitating	0.62
22 Being perfectionist	0.63
23. Rewarding	0.42

Testing Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2b

A two-way ANCOVA, with the covariates of work experience in months, age, work experience with the boss level (top versus immediate), revealed only the main effect of social distance (You are the boss *versus* Your boss), $F(1, 291) = 858.06$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .74$. The construal of *self* as the boss was higher ($M = 15.70$, $SE = .24$) than *your* boss ($M = 5.71$, $SE = .23$). There was no significant effect of temporal distance, $F(2, 291) = 0.15$, $p = .86$[14],[15], nor was the significant interaction between social and temporal distance $F(2, 291) = 0.42$, $p = .66$, on leader construal.

Discussion

Experiment 2 confirmed the psychometric properties of LBCS. There was one factor, demonstrating good construct validity, high reliability, and similarity in the factor loadings to that of the model found in Experiment 1.

In agreement with Experiment 1, the present study showed the effect of status or distance and hence confirmed Hypothesis 1b and not Hypothesis 1a. The results showed that when self is projected as the boss or a leader, it is construed at a more abstract level than the immediate boss. Apparently, construing self as the leader entails distance, not familiarity with self as important. Status or taking the role of a leader becomes more important when *self* as a leader is being construed. The dominance of status effect in our judgment of self, as in this case, could be explained by noting the main characteristics associated with a leader. *Power* which is invariably associated with leaders probably has an important role to play when CLT is applied to study leadership.

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[14] *M*s = 16.95, 17.76, 17.66 and *SE*s = .46, 44, .46 for present, past, and future self as the boss, respectively. your boss, respectively.

[15] *M*s = 6.09, 6.48, 6.89 and *SE*s = .46, 44, .47 for present, past, and future your boss, respectively.

As discussed, power is another form of social distance which has been linked to construal. Research done in the field of power primed individuals can thus support our finding of an abstract construal of self. In the current study, *self as a leader* condition probably automatically leads to power activation among the participants. In Overbeck and Park's (2001) study, participants in the high-power role recalled more relevant information (consisting primary, abstract information) than those in the low-power role. Further, Guinote, Judd, and Brauer (2001) found participants who played the role of judges used more abstract, trait-like language in referring to themselves than the participants who were workers. Similarly, Smith and Trope (2006) in a study involving a set of perceptual tasks, found that power-primed participants focused more on primary features, making more superordinate categorizations.

In addition to the above, researches in different domains of decision making, such as studies on *risk preferences* have revealed that, with respect to self, decisions are often not close to the concrete or actual choice of behaviors (Faro & Rottenstreich, 2006). This result therefore supports our findings as well, "self" when projected as the decision maker will be more in harmony with what the role demands (ideal behavior expected) him to do than what he would be actually be doing (concrete behavior). The psychological distance literature renders further support to the above findings by suggesting that, the use of more abstract construals for more distal entities could be also because the more distal the entity is, lesser is the information we have for it due to the lack of direct experience (Liberman, Trope, & Stephen, 2007; Schwarz & Bless, 1992, 2007).

Further, Hypothesis 2b was confirmed and not 2a. No effect of temporal distance was found on the construal of leader. The hypothesis was suggested based on the evidences of research in favor of temporal construal theory, which implies abstract construal of any temporally distal object. However, in the present case there was no effect of temporal distance on leader construal.

The results indicate that although social distance affects construal of leader behavior, one cannot expect the same effect of other psychological dimensions (like temporal distance) on leader construal. With the present results, we can say that construal of a leader is stable over time and would be driven by the tenets of distance and not familiarity with the self.

Chapter 4

Testing for Mediator of the Psychological Distance-Construal Link

In Experiment 1 the top-boss and the self as the boss were construed at a higher level (abstract) than the immediate boss. Experiment 2 extended the scope of CLT and replicated the findings of Experiment 1. Specifically, construal of the self, as the boss paralleled the construal of a top-boss. Why is the *top-boss* or the *self as the boss* construed at a more abstract level than the immediate boss? To answer this question, a test of mediation by the hypothesized respect in the boss was the next logical step.

Experiment 3

As stated in Chapter 1, I hypothesized that the distance effect on leadership construal may be mediated by respect. A top-boss may be seen as more competent or commanding respect than an immediate boss. Whenever mediation of an effect by a single variable is hypothesized, there is an immediate issue of the *common method bias*[16] (Judd & Kenny, 1981; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). By taking the measures of both *respect for* and *trust in* the leader, I avoided this objection. Inclusion of trust as a competing mediator was also justified by the social literature in which interpersonal relations is driven more by trust than respect (Fiske et al., 2007. Singh, et al., 2009a). In the context of leadership, however, intent or *trust in* the leader should be high and constant (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Consequently, respect activated by competence of the leaders should be the key mediator of the distance effect.

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[16] Testing of a single multiple mediation model ensures check on whether an overall effect exists. It determines the exact effect of the mediator whether it is used alone. When multiple putative mediators are entertained in a mediation model, the likelihood of parameter bias due to the omitted variables is reduced (Preacher & Hayes, 2008, p. 881).

By taking the measures of respect, trust, and leadership construal from the same participants, I also dealt with another methodological issue convincingly. Spencer, Zanna, and Fong (2005), have pointed out that the evidence for construct validation is important for mediation in any correlation design. Without evidence for the distinction between the mediating variable(s) and the dependent variable, it is always ambiguous whether the mediation is genuine or an artifact of no distinction between them. In my case, I distinguished not only respect from leadership construal but also from trust. This was important because my hypothesis was about mediation by respect alone. In sum, I tested for two hypotheses. One was that, the more the distance of the leader from the followers, the higher would be his level of construal (Hypothesis 1). Second, respect should mediate the abstract construal of the top boss (Hypothesis 2).

Method

Design

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four cells of a 2 (order of response measurement: construal level→trust and respect *vs.* trust and respect→construal level) x 2 (social distance: socially distal (top-level boss) *vs.* socially proximal (immediate boss) between-participants factorial design (*n*s = 30 per cell).

Participants

One hundred and twenty Indian management students (27 women; 93 men), from the same population (Age range = 22 to 45 years, (M = 25.63, SD = 2.77), work experience range = 8 to 250 months (M = 36.83, SD = 26.65)) participated.

Materials

The materials for assessing the *construal of leader* (LBCS) and *closeness to the boss* were similar to those used in the previous experiments.

Leader Opinion Questionnaire. In extension of the routine measures, Leader Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) was used in Experiment 3. LOQ is patterned after the measures of *respect for* and *trust in* the partner (Partner Opinion Questionnaire) as used by Singh et al. (2009a) and Singh, Simons, Seow, Shuli, Lin, and Chen, (2009b). LOQ consisted of 10 trust and 10 respect items. The *respect for* and *trust in* the leader items were mixed together to avoid order effects. Each statement had a 7-point Likert scale, anchored by 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Responses to the negatively-worded items were reverse scored.

Procedure

The study took place in one session and each session was held in groups of 3 to 10 participants. The participants were randomly assigned to each condition. Instructions preceding the LBCS were similar to the one used for the manipulation of social distance in Experiment 1. For testing the *respect for* and *trust in* the leader, the LOQ followed the instructions given below:

> *Listed below are the behaviors and/or characteristics usually applicable to a leader. Please circle the number that best describes your top-boss (or your immediate boss).*

This was followed by the 20-item LOQ (see Appendix G). To check for any order effects, the measures of LBCS and LOQ were counterbalanced, with half of the

participants in each condition, receiving the LOQ before the LBCS and the other half receiving it in the reverse order.

As in the earlier experiments participants in each condition were further asked to respond to a list of items eliciting information about their work setting (e.g., working experience with an immediate and top level boss etc), and demographic details (like that in earlier experiments). Following this they were fully debriefed and then asked to leave.

Results

Factor Analyses

To test the hypothesized constructs of leader construal, respect, and trust, I conducted a principal-axis factoring on the 43 relevant items with direct oblimin rotation. The results are given in Table 6.

Factor patterns in Table 6 demonstrate near clear loadings on the three factors of construal, respect, and trust. All the items for the measure of construal showed above .42 of loadings. However, one of the construal items (*planning*) also showed a slight double loading (.38) on the factor of trust. To check this discrepancy and to check the validity of LBCS, as an individual factor, I performed CFA on the single factor of construal. The 23-item LBCS on the present sample yielded an excellent fit, ($\chi^2(60, N = 120) = 72.33, p = 0.13$, CFI = .98, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .04, WRMR = 0.04).

One respect item showed a double loading on the factor on trust (-.45) and along with respect (.44). Another respect item showed weak loading (.26) and indicated a high loading on the factor of trust (.56). Out of the ten items of trust, one item, double loaded on the factor of respect (.38) along with trust (.50).

Using M plus version 5, I evaluated the fit indices for the three factors of construal, respect, and trust model by performing CFA. The results indicated marginal acceptance, $\chi^2(69, N = 120) = 103.65$, $p = 0.005$, CFI = .86, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .06, WRMR = 0.90. It is clear that the three factor model and the reliability of the factor loadings are questionable, especially for the construct of trust. However, this could be also due to random variance. Besides this, my samples are a little too small to reliably estimate such loadings (in this case, there are 2.8 cases per variable; Costello & Osborne, 2005).

I continued to use the same constructs without any modification because EFA fit indices gave an acceptable fit for the three factor model, CFI = .96, TLI = .96, and RMSEA = .05. As explained by Widaman (1993), these differences between the EFA and CFA fit indices could be due to low loadings (e.g., below .40).[17] In addition, the resulting constructs also showed acceptable levels of internal consistency (α = .87, .92, and .86 for construal, respect, and trust, respectively).

Reliability and Correlation Coefficients

As stated the αs of construal, respect, and trust scales were .87, .92, and .86 respectively. Closeness to the boss scale demonstrated high reliability as well (α = .86). I summed all the categorical scores to get a composite score for construal and averaged the responses to the 10 corresponding items to form trust and respect measures, respectively.

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[17] At this stage a good idea was to conduct another experiment with equal sample size and similar design, which could replicate the factor loadings and therefore can establish the reliability of the above measures and rule out the possibility of accidental loadings of the items on each of the factors. Experiment reported in Appendix I follows same sample size and similar design and uses similar assessment measures (LBCS & LOQ). It demonstrates three distinct factors of construal, trust, and respect with equally high reliability scores (.87, .88, & .93, respectively) and three factor model fit (CFA fit indices gives acceptance of the three factor model and resemblance with the three factor model of Experiment 3 ($\chi^2(69, N = 120) = 97.97$, $p = 0.0065$, CFI = .90, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .06, WRMR = 0.85. The factor patterns were also similar to the one reported in Experiment 3).

Table 6

Factor Patterns for Construal, Respect, and Trust in Leader in Experiment 3 (N = 120): Oblique Rotation

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1: Construal Level			
1: Emphasizing goals	**0.60**	0.02	-0.24
2. Seeking information	**0.45**	0.21	-0.15
3. Coordinating groups	**0.44**	0.03	0.03
4. Providing information	**0.56**	0.15	0.00
6. Seeking suggestions	**0.61**	-0.02	0.05
7. Integrating information	**0.74**	0.03	0.09
8. Emphasizing deadlines	**0.47**	-0.00	0.03
9. Explaining actions	**0.73**	-0.22	-0.21
10. Clarifying doubts	**0.79**	0.21	0.16
11. Preventing conflicts	**0.76**	0.21	-0.07
12. Arguing convincingly	**0.81**	-0.02	-0.18
13. Making jokes	**0.86**	-0.08	-0.09
14. Withholding rewards	**0.69**	0.00	0.06
15. Criticizing harshly	**0.50**	0.24	0.15
16. Neglects details	**0.42**	0.04	0.24
18. Motivating	**0.65**	-0.04	0.00
19. Planning	**0.43**	0.28	0.38
20. Building confidence	**0.64**	0.07	0.12
21. Building teams	**0.67**	0.20	0.24

22. Monitoring	**0.58**	-0.14	-0.23
23. Facilitating	**0.49**	-0.18	-0.09
24. Being perfectionist	**0.59**	0.17	0.11
26. Rewarding	**0.41**	-0.03	0.09
Factor 2: Respect			
R1: My top-boss (or immediate boss) is a talented individual	0.12	**0.67**	-0.05
R2: My top-boss (or immediate boss) will be more successful in life	0.02	**0.69**	-0.04
R3: My top-boss (or immediate boss) is good at everything he or she does.	0.11	**0.59**	-0.08
R4: My top-boss (or immediate boss) is a gifted individual.	-0.01	**0.71**	0.03
R5: My top-boss (or immediate boss) will probably achieve all his goals.	0.01	**0.65**	-0.01
R6: My top-boss (or immediate boss) is a competent individual.	-0.03	**0.82**	-0.08
R7: My top-boss (or immediate boss) is well respected.	0.15	**0.44**	**-0.45**
R8: I think my top-boss (or immediate boss) will make a good leader.	0.21	0.26	**-0.56**
R9: My top-boss (or immediate boss) is an intelligent individual.	0.01	**0.72**	-0.12
R10: I think my top-boss (or immediate boss) is competent at what s/he does.	0.04	**0.72**	-0.15
Factor 3: Trust			
T1: My top-boss (or immediate boss) looks out for my interests.	0.07	0.15	**-0.55**
T2: My top-boss (or immediate boss) acts benevolently towards me.	-0.11	0.27	**-0.61**
T3: If there is an opportunity, my top-boss exploits me.*	0.33	-0.09	**-0.45**
T4: I totally rely on my top-boss (or immediate boss).	-0.27	0.12	**-0.33**
T5: My top-boss (or immediate boss) takes advantage of me.*	0.26	-0.13	**-0.46**

T6: My top-boss (or immediate boss) makes me feel secure.	0.06	0.11	**-0.77**
T7: I find my top-boss (or immediate boss) to be a dependable person.	-0.11	**0.38**	**-0.50**
T8: My top-boss (or immediate boss) plays fair with me.	0.10	0.12	**-0.81**
T9: My top (or immediate) boss is not someone I would consider reliable*.	0.17	0.13	**-0.35**
T10: I am able to confide in my top boss (or immediate boss).	-0.05	0.17	**-0.68**

T= Trust; R= Respect; * reverse-scored.

Construal showed significant positive correlation with respect, $r(120) = .41$, $p < .001$, and trust, $r(120) = .20$, $p < .05$. Respect also correlated positively with trust, $r(120) = .65$, $p < .001$. The inter-factor correlation between construal and trust was -0.15, between construal and respect was 0.35, and between trust and respect was -0.44. As in Experiment 1, construal was negatively correlated with closeness to the boss, $r(120) = -.30$, $p < .01$.

Preliminary Analyses

The effect of social distance on construal was tested along with the independent variable of order and the covariates (work experience in months, age, work experience with the level of boss (top versus immediate), closeness to the boss, and thinking of the level of the boss). No order effect was found. The main effect of social distance (top-boss versus immediate boss), yielded the only significant effect, $F(1, 111) = 50.10$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .31$ on construal.

Tests of Hypotheses

Table 7 provides a comparison on the mean and standard deviation scores of trust, respect, and construal for top and immediate bosses. I used independent group *t* test to examine the effects on, construal, respect, and trust. The construal mean for the top-boss was higher than immediate boss, $t(118) = 11.04$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 2.03$, thus supporting Hypothesis 1. Respect mean was significantly higher for top-boss as compared to immediate boss, $t(118) = 2.67$, $p < .01$, Cohen's $d = .49$.

Within group analysis, revealed *respect for* top boss to be significantly higher than *trust in* the immediate boss $F(1, 59) = 15.53$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .21$. These findings

supported Hypothesis 2. As expected top and immediate boss, showed no difference on the dimension of trust $t(118) = .46$, $p = .65$, Cohen's $d = .09$. Further, within group

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations of Construal, Respect, and Trust for Top versus Immediate Boss in Experiment 3

	Construal	Respect	Trust
Top Boss	17.15^{a}	$*4.98^{a}_{x}$	4.59^{a}_{y}
	(4.01)	(0.97)	(0.92)
Immediate Boss	9.00^{b}	$*4.49^{b}_{x}$	4.67^{a}_{x}
	(4.01)	(1.03)	(0.91)

Note. The value in the parenthesis below the mean is the corresponding *SD*. The column means with different superscripts and row means (ns = 60) with different subscripts differ significantly at $*p < .01$, $p < .001$. $N = 120$.

analyses revealed no difference between the means of *trust in* and *respect for* immediate boss $F(1, 59) = 3.07$, $p = .085$.

Two separate single group t tests revealed trust to be significantly higher than the nominal neutral point (4) for both top $t(59) = 4.70$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.22$ and immediate $t(59) = 5.67$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.48$, bosses. These findings lead us to conclude that trust is equally high for both top and immediate boss. Therefore, trust is constant and not affected by the distance between the leader and followers.

Mediation Analyses

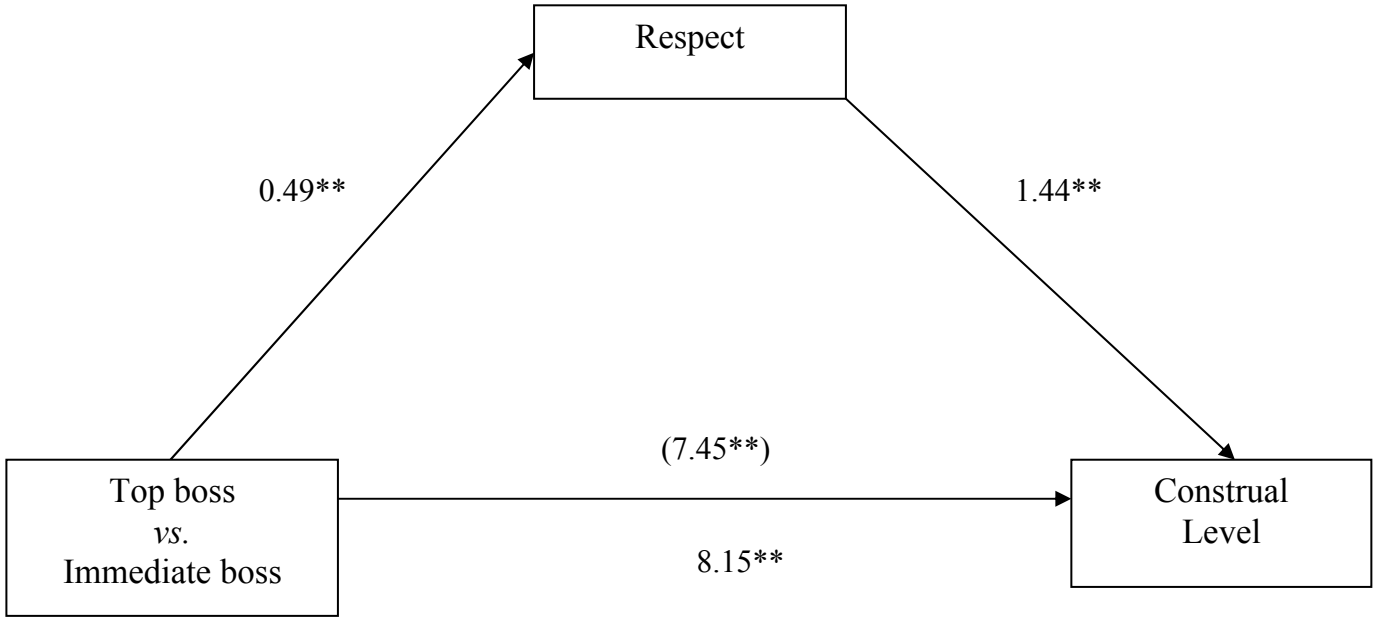
I conducted mediation analyses by SPSS macro (Preacher & Hayes, 2008), which simultaneously estimated: (a) the IV effect on the MVs; (b) the MV effects on the DV; (c) the total effect of the IV on the DV; and (c') the direct effect of the IV when the MV also predict the DV. It also provides the bias corrected 95% CIs around the indirect effect (i.e., a x b = c - c') from a nonparametric bootstrap resampling procedure. An indirect effect of the IV through MV is considered significant only if its bias corrected 95% CIs from numerous bootstrap resamples excludes zero (Williams & MacKinnon, 2008).

Results are summarized in Figure 2. It can be seen that distance predicted respect, t = 2.61, $p < .01$, and leader construal, $t = 11.04$, $p < .001$. After controlling for the effect of respect, distance, predicted leadership construal, $t = 10.44$, $p < .001$. The indirect effect of distance through respect was 0.70 and greater than zero. 95% CI was between 0.16 and1.43 and the proportion of the total effect (ab/c) mediated (MacKinnon, 2008) by respect was only 9%. So, the mediation was partial.[18]

[18] I also conducted a multiple mediation testing, where I tested for the effect of distance on construal of the boss (DV) via respect (MV) and trust (MV). As in the case of single MV testing, respect predicted construal $t = 2.11$, $p = .04$, but trust did not, $t = 1.32$, $p = .19$. The multiple MV tests (in the upper half of the Table B (See Appendix K)) revealed that the difference of 0.44 between the indirect effects via trust and respect was significant, 95% CI: -1.28, -0.03 (Contrast). The direct effect of social distance on construal was still significant, $t = 10.45$, $p < .001$.So the mediation was again partial.

As stated by Preacher and Hayes (2008), sometimes single mediation analysis could be misleading as it may suffer from omitted variable problem. By including trust as a mediator, I found that it is neither affected by distance nor did it correlate with construal. The analyses indicated a slightly larger indirect effect of social distance via respect, but still only partial mediation. The indirect effect via trust changed from -.06 to -0.11 and was still not significantly different from zero. In the present case, therefore, the omitted variable problem was at work. The partial mediation by respect in both single and multiple mediators testing indicates that the effect of respect is not conditional to the presence of trust.

Figure 2: Mediational Role of Respect in Experiment 3



Discussion

Results indicate that the constructs of construal, respect, and trust were distinct. Trust is unquestionably important in any form of leader-subordinate relation (Au, 2009[19]; Lamb & McKee, 2004; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) but respect varies with distance. Also, there was only one factor in the leader construal. Thus, Experiment 3 replicated the findings of Experiment 1 and supported Hypothesis 1: Top bosses were construed more at an abstract level as compared to immediate bosses.

Respect was higher for the top-boss as compared to the immediate boss. As hypothesized, this difference mediated the difference in leadership construal. Although this result supports Hypothesis 2, the mediation effect was rather small. This result coupled with the evidence for partial mediation of the distance effect indicates that there may be other causal variables. My results show that trust is not among those causal variables. Until new data are available, it is proper to state that respect is a mediator of the distance effect on leadership construal.

[19]Au, A. (2009, June). *Development of leader-member exchange quality: The role of supervisor/subordinate behaviors and perceived trustworthiness.* Paper presented at a seminar at Department of Psychology, National University of Singapore, Singapore.

Chapter 5

General Discussion

Three Contributions

My research contributes to the leadership literature in three important ways. First, I developed a single-dimension instrument of LBCS, which reliably measures leadership construal. I developed LBCS following the tenets of action identification theory and patterned it after BIF. As results of Experiment 1 through 3 consistently showed, the 23-item LBCS had high coefficient of reliability and distinguished two contrasting groups of leaders. Thus, a new instrument of LBCS is available for leadership research.

Second, my research fills the gap in the leadership literature. Past studies were not able to explain why leaders are sometimes described by *traits* (see Judge et al., 2002; McClelland, 1975, 1985; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982) and sometimes by *behaviors* (Blake & Mouton, 1984; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill, 1949; Hemphill & Coons, 1957). By applying CLT, I showed that the difference in leadership construal is due to the *distance* between the leader and the followers. CLT advocates for different levels of representation of any stimulus. The first is concrete representation; the second is abstract representation. The former entails detailed behavioral features such as description of behaviors of the leader. In contrast, the latter entails trait-related feature such as task *versus* relation orientation of leaders (Fiedler, 1964; 1967) or initiating structure *versus* consideration among them (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957). By demonstrating that *behavioral* or *concrete* and *trait* or *abstract* construal of a leader depend on his or her social or psychological distance from the followers, I thus solved the puzzle and provided answer to the long-standing

controversy around the *trait* versus *behavioral* approaches to leadership. Obviously, trait *versus* behavioral construal is an outcome of who is being described and by whom. The propagators of CLT had demonstrated the effect of distance in many other decision making domains but I extended it to the domain of leadership.

Finally, trust has been considered to be of paramount importance in organizations (Au, 2009; Lamb & McKee, 2004; Porter et al., 1975; Podsakoff, et al., 1990). It consists of *affective* (trust in) and *cognitive* (respect for) evaluation of the target (McAllister, 1995). By taking leads from the contemporary social psychological literature, I distinguished *trust in* from *respect for* the leader. More important, I showed that trust is constant, but respect varies, across leaders of different social distance. As hypothesized, respect mediated the effect of social or psychological distance on leadership construal. These results contribute to our understanding of why followers choose more prototypical and trait-based descriptions to construe top leaders. Results of Experiment 3 indicate that top leaders are construed in trait or abstract terms primarily because of respect for their competence.

Implications

The first implication of my research is that it explains why followers sometimes explain a leader in *trait* terms and sometimes in *behavioral* terms. The studies at Ohio States University (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957) and Michigan (Katz & Kahn, 1952; Katz et al., 1951; Katz et al., 1950) classified leaders or managers into two broad behavioral categories (i.e., task- *versus* relationship-oriented leader) and the *trait* approaches emphasized a set of high order traits to explain an effective leader. None of the approaches, however, could totally refute the other or explain why both explanations

could be valid for the same leader. My research fills in this gap in the literature by showing that traits and behavioral approaches are not inconsistent. To understand and explain the effectiveness of a leader, people may use either behavioral descriptions or trait-based approaches. Whether they use one or the other construal is guided by their *distance* from the leader. Hence, a close leader is construed in terms of behavioral acts; a distant leader is, in contrast, construed in trait terms. Notably, then, my results agree with Shamir's (1995) Proposition 4a that images of distant leaders are more prototypical than those of close leaders.

My findings have implications for Conger and Kanungo's (1998) model of charismatic leaders as well. According to this model, charismatic leadership is both "relational and attributional" (p. 38). Relational charisma develops when the leader is "close" to followers and the followers get to view leader's actual behavior in *concrete* manner. Attributional perception of charismatic leader generally follows for a "high-level" or "distal" leader. This happens in the absence of direct observation and following the general notion which is usually held for a leader (see Shamir, 1995; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999).

In the attributional model, "leadership is in the eye of beholder" (van Knippenberg et al., 2007, p. 53). *Attributions* by followers are drawn from the prototype of a distant leader held in their minds or from shared perception of leaders (Howell & Shamir, 1998; Lord & Maher, 1991; Meindl, 1995), or from lack of any knowledge of distant leader (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Shamir, 1995). These cognitive perceptual theories guided my research and helped take a follower-centric perspective on how and why are leaders construed in concrete and abstract terms. Therefore, my approach guided

by CLT, which has turned out successful, suggests that charisma is another term for psychological distance from the so-called charismatic leader.

Leadership always pertains to status (Bogardus, 1927). In terms of leader-follower relations, when the status of a leader changes or the psychological distance of a leader increases in relation to the follower, this relation *per se* changes as well. It is the relationship that colors the perception of leaders. An important implication of this research lies in considering distance from the leader as an important variable: Leadership is not an *all-or-none* phenomenon (leaders *versu*s non-leaders) but a continuous variable in which even leaders can be low and high with regard to the distance they maintain from the followers.

Two other implications of my findings deserve mention. One is for the construct of trust. McAllister (1995) proposed affect- and cognition-based trust in organizations. Singh, et al. (2009a) demonstrated that other-profitable traits activate trust in but self-profitable traits activate respect for a partner in a project. Given these findings, I also used items tapping trust in and respect for the leader, and related them with leadership construal. By doing factor analyses of the responses to these three kinds of items, I demonstrated that trust, respect, and leadership construal are conceptually separable constructs. This outcome lends support to McAllister (1995) and Singh, et al. findings. It is notable, nevertheless, that it is the cognitive trust or respect for the leader that turned out to be a distinguishing variable between the top and immediate leaders.

Another is for Fiske et al.'s (2007) formulation on the effects of traits on social perception. According to this view, warmth of a person is more important than his or her competence. Warmth leads to inferences about intent of the person and competence

informs whether he or she can carry out that intention. Because trust was high and constant across the two levels of distance in my study, I also interpret trust as the primacy dimension in representation of others. What distinguishes construal of a leader from that of a peer is however respect. Trust characterizes all leaders but respect distinguishes the proximal leader from the distal one. In any case, supremacy of trust over respect prevails in perception of leaders as well. Accordingly, my findings not only reaffirm earlier findings of Fiske et al. (2007) but also extend the work from Western social psychology literatures to the Eastern and organizational psychology.

Overall, then, my findings from the CLT application illustrate the merit of the follower-centric approach. The same followers, who describe their proximal leaders in concrete behavioral terms, describe the distal leaders by traits. Further, it highlights the importance of the implicit leadership theories, suggesting that "activation of cognitive category"[20] in judgment of leaders too is dependent on *distance*.

Limitation and Future Directions

In spite of my evidence for the effect of distance on leadership construal, no effect of temporal distance in Experiment 2 was surprising. One reason could be that all dimensions of psychological distances might not have similar effects. In fact, prototypes of leader remain unchanged across time (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Another reason could be a smaller sample size for psychological distance than temporal distance. In Experiment 2, for example, social distance had a sample size of 150 but that of temporal distance had a sample size of 100. Had this difference been crucial, however, the distance effect in Experiment 1 would not have emerged either. Given my large sample sizes for

[20] Categories contain knowledge about the stimulus; in most cases these are abstract. Medvedeff & Lord, (2007, p. 26) proposed that leadership is a cognitive category.

the three levels of temporal distance, I am inclined to endorse the view of implicit leadership theorists mentioned above. I wish to point out that a within-participants design is needed to make the saliency of temporal distance in leadership construal. While between-participants design allows participants to bring in their own contexts for judgments, a within-participants design makes one of the levels as the base and frame for judgments of other levels (Birnbaum, 1999). Perhaps temporal distance requires a relative framework to be effective.

Because of my interest in applying CLT to leadership construal and in conducting experimental studies, I selected graduate students of management as the participants and randomly assigned them to different conditions. Although participants had work experiences with leaders of different levels, the number of years of work experience did not emerge as a covariate of leadership construal. So, my findings can be adjudged as clear with regard to distance effect and its mediation by respect. Nevertheless, there remains a need to undertake such a study in organizations wherein both leaders and followers are interacting, as it is possible for the student participants to romanticize the image of the leader. One advantage of such a study will be that leadership construal will not be so much memory-driven. I recommend that a field of the phenomenon and its mechanism underlying it will be a step in the right direction. Furthermore, both between- and within-participants designs should be employed to check on the generality of results.

Further, the current research was conducted in India, which according to Hofstede's taxonomy (1980, 1993, & 2001) has been categorized under high power distance nation. Power distance is explained by Yukl (2006) as,

> "the extent to which people accept differences in power and status among themselves. In a high power distance culture, leaders have more authority, they are entitled to special rights and privileges, they are *less* accessible, and they are not expected to share power with subordinates" (p. 433).

I however did not come across any research lending support to people following the prototypes of a leader more strictly in these high power distance countries but as per the definition, people coming from high power distance nation, a top leader would be "less accessible" (as per the definition) and therefore could be seen even at a more higher abstract level than immediate boss.

In contrast to the above assumption and to the best of my knowledge, the relationship between *culture* and *construal* has not been explored so far. Research on cross-cultural psychology differentiates between independent (West European and North American) and interdependent (Asian and South American) cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1994). It has been demonstrated that participants from China, India, Africa, and Mexico would explicitly acknowledge the importance of other people, relations, and the interpersonal nature of behavior. In terms of social distance, interdependent cultures may be characterized as maintaining more proximity between a person and his or her social surrounding. Therefore, in such a case CLT would predict that people in these cultures would be predisposed to use low-level construals (Liberman et al., 2007). But this is a mere suggestion, and it should however be noted, that this could be more expected in case of a cross-cultural comparisons (East *vs.*West) and not within the same culture. Therefore, it would be interesting for any future research to explore this.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be said that a leader can be construed in trait or behavioral terms contingent upon how distant he or she is from the followers. In particular, top leaders are construed in more trait terms than behavioral terms because of respect for their competence.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Pilot Study

Original Thirty-Seven Items

1. Emphasizing goals
2. Seeking information
3. Coordinating groups
4. Providing information
5. Proposing solutions
6. Specifying problems
7. Seeking suggestions
8. Making suggestion
9. Integrating information
10. Emphasizing deadlines
11. Admitting mistakes
12. Explaining actions
13. Clarifying doubts
14. Preventing conflicts
15. Arguing convincingly
16. Allocating decisions
17. Exercising influence
18. Making jokes
19. Requesting approval
20. Withholding rewards

21. Criticizing harshly

22. Neglects details

23. Building relationship

24. Motivating

25. Rewarding

26. Problem solving

27. Planning

28. Building confidence

29. Building teams

30. Monitoring

31. Facilitating

32. Cooperating

33. Showing persistence

34. Being perfectionist

35. Being social

36. Being afraid of failure

37. Being impulsive

Appendix B

Leader Behavior Construal Scale

1. Emphasizing goals
    a. Repeating key tasks at hand during meetings (low-level construal (LLC))
    b. Motivating to stay focused(high-level construal (HLC))

2. Seeking information
    a. Gaining knowledge (HLC)
    b. Regular discussion of task done earlier (LLC)

3. Coordinating groups
    a. Calling and asking work done at different levels(LLC)
    b. Building network(HLC)

4. Providing information
    a. Sharing and involving(HLC)
    b. Thirty minutes discussion of the direction specified by the higher authority. (LLC)

5. Specifying problems
    a. Informing about road blocks calling for feedback sessions.(LLC)
    b. Ensuring smooth flow of work(HLC)

6. Seeking suggestions
    a. Enhancing participation(HLC)
    b. Discussion with subordinates(LLC)

7. Integrating information
    a. Checking on work done at each level (LLC)
    b. Ensuring proper work flow(HLC)

8. Emphasizing deadlines
    a. Focusing on finishing task(HLC)
    b. Reminding agenda(LLC)

9. Explaining actions
    a. Informing issues discussed in meetings at higher levels(LLC)
    b. Ensuring awareness (leaving no room for misunderstanding) (HLC)

10. Clarifying doubts
    a. Ensuring correct functioning(HLC)
    b. Routine meeting(LLC)

11. Preventing conflicts
    a. Intervening and stopping arguments(LLC)
    b. Ensuring healthy work atmosphere(HLC)

12. Arguing convincingly
    a. Talking with all information(HLC)
    b. Not ready to listen(LLC)

13. Making jokes
    a. Pulling the leg of a subordinates(LLC)
    b. Being friendly(HLC)

14. Withholding rewards
    a. Maintaining performance level(HLC)
    b. Delaying raise/ recommendations/ promotions(LLC)

15. Criticizing harshly
    a. Shouting and complaining(LLC)
    b. Being a hard task master(HLC)

16. Neglects details
    a. Focusing on important issues(HLC)
    b. Avoiding routine work (paper work) (LLC)

17. Building relationship
    a. Giving personal or individual attention(LLC)
    b. Relationship oriented(HLC)

18. Motivating
    a. Maintaining high level of performance (HLC)
    b. Promising perks(LLC)

19. Planning
    a. Micro-managing (LLC)
    b. Making sure to meet company goals (HLC)

20. Building confidence
    a. Rewarding (HLC)
    b. Boosting morale (LLC)

21. Building teams
    a. Delegating same task to a group of people (LLC)
    b. Ensuring team work (HLC)

22. Monitoring

a. Maintaining high level of performance (HLC)
b. Keeping an eye (LLC)

23. Facilitating
    a. Delegating more people to work on the same task (LLC)
    b. Cooperating (HLC)

24. Being perfectionist
    a. Being task-oriented (HLC)
    b. Re-reading or checking again and again (LLC)

25. Being social
    a. Mixing with subordinates (LLC)
    b. Relationship oriented (HLC)

26. Rewarding
    a. Encouraging good work (HLC)
    b. Giving incentives (LLC)

Appendix C

Work Related Information

Please answer in *Yes* or *No*:

1. Do you have an experience of working under an immediate boss?

2. Was there a top-level boss or CEO in your company?

What level of boss were you thinking about while filling out the questionnaire?

(Please tick one)

a. Top level boss (for example a CEO or top level executive)

b. Immediate boss

Appendix D

Demographic & Other Information

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Work experience (in years/months): _____

Occupation (type of work): _____

Appendix E

Relationship with Boss

(1) How well did you know this boss?

1----------2----------3----------4----------5

Do not know at all Know a little Can't say Quite well Very well

(2) How often did you meet this boss for official duties?

1----------2----------3----------4----------5

Not at all Very little Can't say Often Too often

(3) How often did you meet this boss for social gatherings?

1----------2----------3----------4----------5

Not at all A little Can't say Often Too often

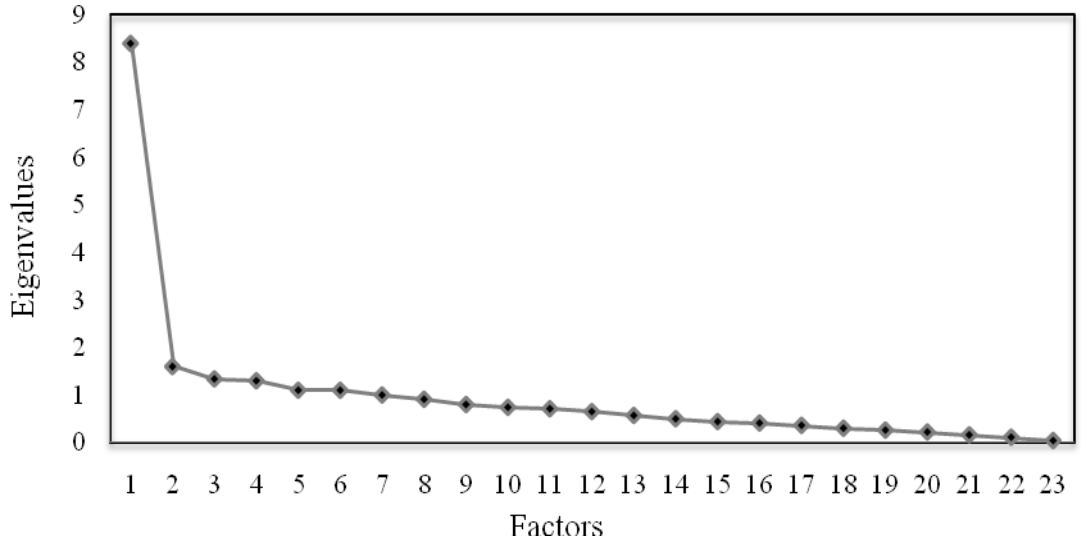
(4) How close were you to this boss?

1----------2----------3----------4----------5

Not at all Little close Can't say Quite Close Very close

Appendix F

Figure: Screeplot of LBCS items in Experiment 2



Appendix G

Leader Opinion Questionnaire

1. My top boss looks out for my interests.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

2. My top boss is a talented individual.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

3. My top boss acts benevolently toward me.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

4. My top boss will be more successful in life.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

5. If there is an opportunity, my top boss exploits me.*

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

6. My top boss is good at everything that s/he does.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

7. I totally rely on my top boss.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

8. My top boss is a gifted individual.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

9. My top boss takes advantage of me.*

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

10. My top boss will probably achieve all of his/her goals.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

11. My top boss makes me feel secure.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

12. My top boss is a competent individual.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

13. I find my top boss to be a dependable person.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

14. My top boss is well respected.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

15. My top boss plays fair with me.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

16. I think that my top boss makes a good leader.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

17. My top boss is not someone I would consider reliable.*

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

18. My top boss is an intelligent individual.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7

Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

19. I am able to confide in my top boss.

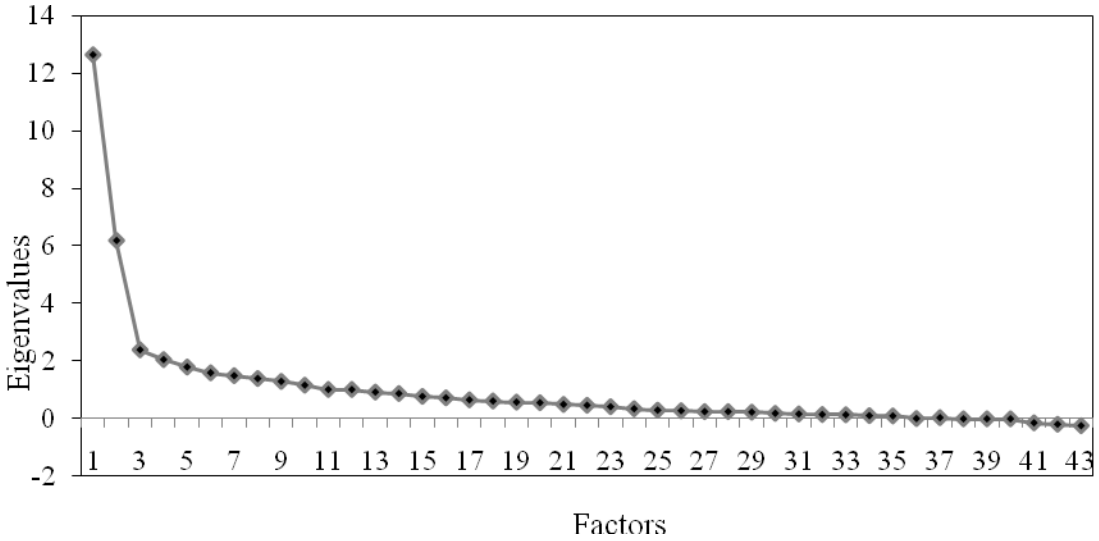
1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

20. I think my top boss is competent at what s/he does.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

Appendix H

Figure: Showing Screeplot of Construal, Respect, and Trust items in Experiment 3



Appendix I

Testing the Three Factor Model

To test the hypothesized three factor model of construal, trust and respect I planned another study which I patterned after Experiment 2 and 3. In this experiment I focused using similar variation of social distance (as in Experiment 2) to test the factor patterns. Social distance was varied in terms of "you are the boss" versus "your immediate boss" (socially proximal), along with the added measures for *trust in* and *respect for* the boss (similar to LOQ used in Experiment 3).

Method

Design

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four cells of a 2 (order of response measurement: construal level→trust and respect *vs.* trust and respect→construal level) x 2 (social distance: socially distant (you are the boss) *vs.* socially proximal (your boss)) between-participants factorial design (*n*s = 30 per cell).

Participants

As in Experiment 3,120 Indian management students (16 women; 104 men) enrolled in a premium management institute participated in the experiment. All participants (ages ranged from 22 to 36 years, $M = 25.71$, $SD = 2.71$) had earlier work experience ranging from 10 to 128 months ($M = 39.07$, $SD = 23.17$).

Materials

The materials for assessing the *construal of leader* (LBCS) and *closeness to the boss* were similar to one's being used in from Experiment 1 through 3.

LOQ and LOQ-I. As mentioned LOQ is patterned after the measures of *respect for* and *trust in* the partner (Partner Opinion Questionnaire) used by Singh et al (2009a). In extension of the routine measures, along with LOQ, a modified version- *LOQ-I* of LOQ was used in this Experiment. In essence LOQ-I (see Appendix H), is similar to the measure of LOQ used in Experiment 3. Like LOQ, which measures the *trust in* and *respect for* the top and immediate boss in Experiment 3, LOQ-I assessed self perception (like, *I would act benevolently toward my subordinates, as a boss, I would play fair etc.*) and meta-perceptions[21] (like, *My subordinates would find me to be a talented individual, my subordinates would find me to be successful in life etc.*), of one's own self in a leader's role (i.e., in the condition of "you are the boss").

Each version consisted of 10 trust and 10 respect items. Like in Experiment 3, the *respect for* and *trust in* the leader items were mixed together to avoid order effects. Each statement had a 7-point Likert scale, anchored by 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Responses to the negatively-worded items are reverse scored.

Procedure

The study took place in one session and each session was held in groups of 4 to 10 participants. The participants were randomly assigned to each condition. Instructions preceding the LBCS were similar to the one used for the manipulation of social distance in Experiment 2. For testing the *respect for* and *trust in* the immediate leader, LOQ followed the instructions given below:

[21] Meta-perception is explained as the awareness of others' judgments of oneself (Laing, Phillipson, & Lee, 1966).

Listed below are the behaviors and/or characteristics usually applicable to a leader. Please circle the number that best describes your immediate boss.

For testing the *respect for* and *trust in* case of "you are the boss", instructions were:

Listed below are behaviors and/or characteristics applicable to leaders. If you were the boss of an organization or company, how would these acts and/or characteristics apply to you? Please circle the number that will best represents you as a boss.

To check for any order effects the measures of LBCS and LOQ (or LOQ-I) were counterbalanced, with half of the participants in each condition, receiving the LOQ (or LOQ-I) before the LBCS and the other half receiving it in the reverse order.

As in the earlier experiments participants in each condition were further asked to respond to a list of items (Appendix E) eliciting information about their work setting (for e.g., working experience with an immediate and top level boss etc) and demographic details. Following this they were fully debriefed and then asked to leave.

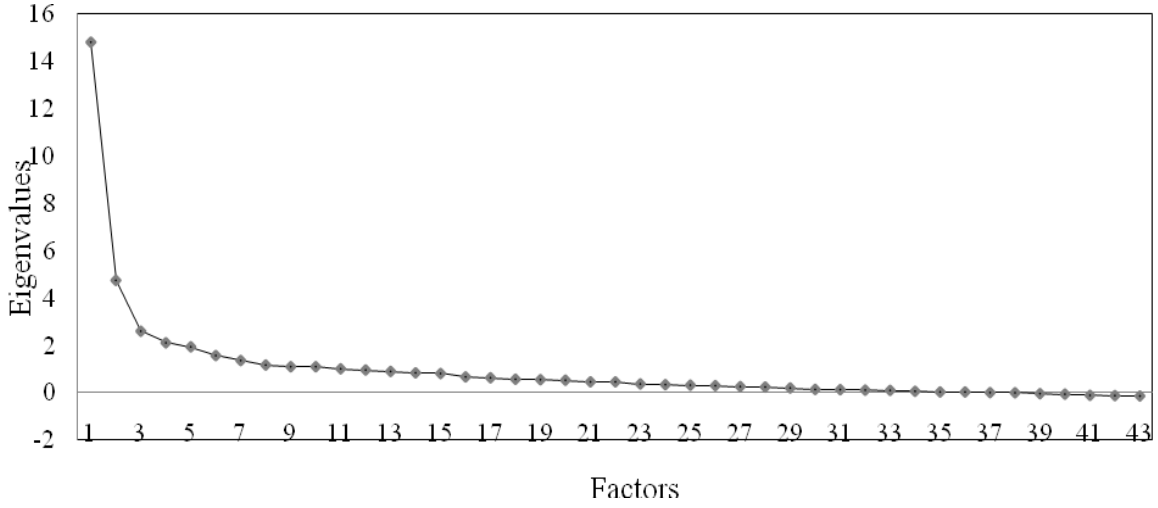
Results

Factor Analyses

To test the hypothesized three constructs of leader construal, trust, and respect, I conducted a principal-axis factoring on the 43 relevant items. Like Experiment 3, scree test suggested three factor structures for the model. Figure A shows the plotted eigen values. Following this I did EFA with oblimin rotation. The results are given in Table A

below. Factor patterns demonstrated clear and similar loadings on the three factors of construal, trust, and respect as in Experiment 3.

Figure A: Scree plot of Construal, Trust and Respect items



Majority of items for the measure of construal showed above .42 of loadings. Three items of construal (*neglects details, seeking suggestions,* and *facilitating*) showed weak loading on the factor of construal. However, CFA of a single factor construal measure, yielded a good fit (χ^2 (60, N = 120) = 72.33, p <. 001, CFI = .93, TLI = .95, RMSEA =.075, WRMR = 0.94).

Two trust items showed higher loading on the factor of respect. Most of the items felt in the moderate range of loading (i.e., between 0.40 to 0.70). Whereas, half of the items for the measure of respect felt in the moderate range and other half in high range of loadings (i.e., between 0.70 to 0.90).

For testing the fit indices for the three factors of construal, trust and respect model, I performed CFA using M plus version 5. The results indicated acceptance (χ^2(69, N = 120) = 97.97, p < 0.001, CFI = .90, TLI = .95, RMSEA = .06, WRMR = 0.85) of the three factor model and resemblance with the three factor model of Experiment 3

Table A

Factor Patterns for Construal, Trust in, and Respect for Leader (N = 120): Oblique Rotation

Items	*Factor 1*	*Factor 2*	*Factor 3*
Factor 1: Construal			
1. Emphasizing goals	**0.57**	-0.23	-0.22
2. Seeking information	**0.65**	-0.06	-0.02
3. Coordinating groups	**0.60**	0.06	0.06
4. Providing information	**0.76**	-0.19	0.09
6. Seeking suggestions	**0.56**	-0.31	-0.21
7. Integrating information	0.27	-0.18	0.11
8. Emphasizing deadlines	**0.45**	0.01	0.09
9. Explaining actions	**0.78**	-0.09	0.07
10. Clarifying doubts	**0.63**	-0.20	-0.08
11. Preventing conflicts	**0.91**	-0.06	-0.01
12. Arguing convincingly	**0.77**	-0.02	0.24
13. Making jokes	**0.70**	0.24	0.22
14. Withholding rewards	**0.42**	0.29	0.37
15. Criticizing harshly	**0.59**	0.37	0.23
16. Neglects details	**0.44**	0.10	-0.02
18. Motivating	0.11	-0.05	**0.46**
19. Planning	**0.63**	0.02	0.18
20. Building confidence	**0.54**	-0.36	-0.23
21. Building teams	**0.87**	0.30	-0.01

22. Monitoring	**0.65**	-0.18	0.01
23. Facilitating	**0.76**	0.02	-0.14
24. Being perfectionist	**0.45**	0.07	0.08
26. Rewarding	0.10	-0.13	0.30
Factor 2: Trust			
T1: My immediate boss looks out for my interests.	0.09	**-0.53**	0.36
T2: My immediate boss acts benevolently towards me.	-0.11	**-0.40**	**0.46**
T3: If there is an opportunity, my boss exploits me.*	0.18	**-0.45**	0.17
T4: I totally rely on my immediate boss.	-0.07	**-0.43**	0.06
T5: My immediate boss takes advantage of me.*	0.03	**0.41**	0.29
T6: My immediate boss makes me feel secure.	0.16	**-0.52**	0.33
T7: I find my immediate boss to be a dependable person.	-0.04	**-0.57**	0.31
T8: My immediate boss plays fair with me.	0.14	**-0.58**	0.38
T9: My immediate boss is not someone I would consider reliable*.	0.13	-0.33	0.36
T10: I am able to confide in my immediate boss.	0.01	-0.38	**0.46**
Factor 3: Respect			
R1: My immediate boss is a talented individual	0.08	-0.04	**0.79**
R2: My immediate boss will be more successful in life	0.14	-0.05	**0.70**
R3: My immediate boss is good at everything he or she does.	-0.02	0.01	**0.69**
R4: My immediate boss is a gifted individual.	-0.04	0.05	**0.70**
R5: My immediate boss will probably achieve all his goals.	-0.02	-0.02	**0.56**
R6: My immediate boss is a competent individual.	0.02	-0.05	**0.80**
R7: My immediate boss is well respected.	0.24	-0.15	**0.63**
R8: I think my immediate boss will make a good leader.	0.07	-0.13	**0.70**

R9: My immediate boss is an intelligent individual.	-0.03	0.00	**0.83**
R10: I think my immediate boss is competent at what s/he does.	-0.01	0.05	**0.82**

T= Trust; R= Respect; * reverse-scored.

EFA fit indices also gave an acceptable fit for the three factor model (CFI = .96, TLI = .96, and RMSEA = .06).

Reliability and Correlation Coefficients

As stated the αs of construal, trust, and respect scales were .87, .88, and .93, respectively. This demonstrated a similar and high consistency level for the three measures.

Discussion

The main goal of the present experiment was to test the hypothesized three factor model of trust, respect, and construal. It is clear that the loadings on the three factor models are not accidental, factor patterns are similar, and the constructs are distinct. Although the reliability of some of the items of construal and trust measures are questionable, it is more evident now that this could be due to random variance or small sample size.

Appendix J

Leader Opinion Questionnaire- I

1. I would look out for my subordinates' interests.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

2. My subordinates would find me to be a talented individual.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

3. I would act benevolently toward my subordinates.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

4. My subordinates would find me to be successful in life.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

5. If given the opportunity, I would probably exploit my subordinates.*

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

6. My subordinates would find me to be good at everything that I would do.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

7. My subordinates would totally rely on me.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

8. My subordinates would find me to be a gifted individual.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

9. As a boss, I would take advantage of my subordinates.*

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

10. My subordinates would find me to be able to achieve all of my goals.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

11. As a boss, I would make my subordinates feel secure.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

12. My subordinates would find me to be a competent individual.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

13. My subordinates would find me to be a dependable person.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

14. My subordinates would find me to be respectable.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

15. As a boss, I would play fair.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

16. My subordinates would find me to be a good leader.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

17. As a boss, I would not be reliable to my subordinates.*

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

18. My subordinates would find me to be an intelligent individual.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7

Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

19. My subordinates would be able to confide in me.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

20. My subordinates would find me to be competent in whatever I would do.

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7
Strongly Disagree Neither Disagree nor Agree Strongly Agree

Appendix K

Table B

Mediational Role of Trust and Respect in Experiment 3

(a): IV → MV	(b): MV → DV	(c): Total Effect	(c'): Direct Effect	MVs	(a) x (b): Indirect Effect	95% CIs	(a)x(b)/c
			Multiple-MV test				
-0.08	0.69	8.15**	7.71**	Trust	-0.06	-0.67, 0.12	-0.01
0.49**	1.01*			Respect	**0.50**	0.03, 1.35	0.06
				Contrast		-1.28, -0.03	
			Single-MV tests				
-0.08	1.44**	8.15**	8.26**	Trust	-0.11	-0.71, 0.34	0.01
0.49**	1.44**	8.15**	7.45**	Respect	**0.70**	0.16, 1.43	0.09

Note. *p <.05; **p < .01; 95% CIs: Bias corrected confidence intervals. The indirect effects in bold are significantly greater than zero.